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THE COMING CRISIS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

IT HAS become so commonplace to use the word *crisis* to describe the educational scene that the term has lost much of its force. Nevertheless, it is difficult to avoid its use when describing the condition of American higher education at any time during the last quarter-century. Since 1930 our colleges and universities have weathered the storms of economic depression, of total war, and then of postwar inflation of both enrolments and prices. Now we have solemn warnings of an impending influx of students which threatens to inundate our institutions of higher education.

Problems posed by coming increase in enrolments

The problems of the years ahead are dramatically presented in the report of the Committee on Special Projects of the American Association

of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students*, prepared by Ronald B. Thompson, of Ohio State University (1954). The report points out that the annual number of births in this country has almost doubled in the last twenty years, reaching nearly four million in 1953. This will mean an increase in the elementary-school enrolment of more than one million per year for the next six years. The report states that, for the high schools, the 6,500,000 students enrolled in 1949-50 will have increased to approximately 8,600,000 by 1960-61 and 11,000,000 by 1966-67.

Enrolments in colleges and universities in the years ahead will be influenced not only by the higher birth rate but also by the anticipated increase in the proportion of college-age youth attending colleges. It is pointed out in *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students* that, in 1900, 4 per cent of the college-age group attended colleges

and universities; in 1920, 8 per cent; in 1930, 12 per cent; in 1940, 18 per cent; and in 1950, 31 per cent. Enrolments in colleges and universities in the United States in the fall of 1954 were approximately 2,500,000, the highest in history. Even if the per cent of college-age youth attending college were to remain at 31 (as is hardly likely) there would be 3,600,000 students in our institutions of higher education in 1965-66 and 4,200,000 in 1970-71.

The tremendous increase in enrolment that lies ahead obviously poses serious problems for the colleges and universities. These problems revolve around the questions of staffing, housing, and financing. There are, of course, institutions which, operating below capacity, will be able to absorb additional numbers of students without proportionate increases in cost, but in general it is clear that additional physical plant, staff, and financial support will be required.

The mounting costs of higher education stem not only from the increase in numbers of students to be served but also from the forces of inflation, the need for higher faculty salaries to meet the growing competition from other opportunities for employment, and the tremendously more costly equipment needed for today's instruction, particularly in the sciences. Also, there has been a tendency for colleges and universities continually to extend the scope of their services. Not too many years ago, for example, student personnel services, to the extent they were provided at all, were made avail-

able through regular student-faculty contacts; today they are separately organized and, to a considerable degree, require services of staff members in addition to the regular teaching members of the faculty.

Securing the additional support needed will not be easy for either the public institutions or the private institutions. As the educational enterprise grows in magnitude and complexity and as its financial requirements increase accordingly, higher education is going to be asked more and more by both public and private sponsors to justify its requests for funds. The competition from charitable, governmental, and other nonprofit types of enterprises grows keener all the time. This has brought about increasing concern with the public relations of our higher institutions.¹ It is certainly true that, as the competition for funds becomes keener, institutions must more and more strive for maximum effectiveness in the interpretation of their programs to their publics. However, the answer does not lie wholly in efforts to "sell" present programs to the public. Colleges and universities must be willing to look critically and objectively at the things they are doing and at the ways they are doing them. The most firmly established customs and the most cherished of traditions must be scrutinized with a view to discovering improved and more economical means of discharging the obligations of the institution.

¹ Clarence A. Schoenfeld, *The University and Its Publics*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1954.

Plan to assist institutions in making self-appraisals

In this connection a recently announced program of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is of interest. The program is described in *News Notes* (No. 4, September, 1954), issued by the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association. According to the announcement, the Commission on Colleges and Universities hopes to assist the higher institutions in the nineteen states included in its territory in meeting the challenge ahead through (1) sponsorship of, and assistance in, the conduct of a program of self-studies to be carried on by the staffs of individual institutions or groups of institutions acting together to solve a common problem; (2) performance of a clearing-house function, providing information of concern to the member higher institutions; and (3) provision of consultant services. The program of studies will be designed:

To assist institutions and groups of institutions in finding solutions to problems and to bring these to the attention of other institutions. In many instances, the usefulness of the studies to institutions in general would lie in the suggestion of techniques for attacking problems rather than in the discovery of answers to problems. Indeed, if proper regard is to be had for institutional individuality and variability, care should be taken to avoid generalizations which could not be justified because of the wide differences among institutions in objectives, programs, and general institutional characteristics. What may be effective administrative organization under one set of circumstances may not be equally

effective under another set of circumstances. What may be good curriculum organization for the achievement of one set of objectives may not be satisfactory for the achievement of a different set of objectives.

The North Central Association recognizes that it must be prepared to provide consultant services if the full fruits of the program of studies contemplated here are to materialize. The *News Notes* points out:

This type of assistance will be essential to an effective program of studies if the studies are to be carried on by the staffs of the institutions rather than by a staff of research workers set up for the purpose. Such consultant services as are now available are, for the most part, provided on a casual and unsystematic basis. What is needed is a core of consultants, adequately trained and organized for effective service. This need the Committee on Planning proposes to meet.

The consultants will be of two types: one, those who might be called generalists because of their broad grasp of the problems of higher education, their understanding of the relationships among the various aspects of the work of higher institutions, and their knowledge of the types of services needed and available in specific situations; and, two, specialists in the several disciplines and in curriculum, finance, business management, physical plant, public relations, student personnel, evaluation, and counseling.

The consultants will be carefully selected, in most instances, but not necessarily, from the staffs of member colleges and universities of the Association. . . . The generalist-consultants would typically hold positions in general administration; the specialist-consultants, in their special fields of interest.

Arrangements will be made for a program of in-service education to be carried on through conferences, workshops, and other appropriate means. In this way the consultants will be kept informed of significant developments in the field of higher education

and will be apprised of work being done in related fields in the social sciences and humanities which is relevant to the activities of the consultant.

... The program of consultant services should be systematized, though care should be taken not so to formalize the activity as to create a restrictive inflexibility. Provision should be made for reports by consultants which would analyze the situation, describe the nature of the assistance rendered, evaluate the results, and suggest the need, if any, for further consultant service. The recipient institutions will also be expected to report their estimate of the value of the consultant service received by them, including reference to those aspects of the service that were effective and those that were ineffective, and recommendations for improvement in the service. The reports of the consultants and of the institutions, analyzed and synthesized, will provide useful materials for consideration in the conferences and workshops for consultants, and will serve as a basis for effecting improvements in the program.

Finding additional teaching staff

Not the least of the problems to be faced by the colleges and universities as enrolments increase will be the procurement of additional teaching staff. Some idea of the magnitude of the increased demand for college and university teachers is provided by *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students*. It is estimated that our present teaching staff in colleges and universities of approximately 200,000 will have to be increased to 300,000 by 1965-66, assuming, first, that the proportion of youth of college age attending college remains at about the present figure (approximately one-third) and, second, that the present average student-faculty ratio of approximately twelve

to one will continue. These assumptions, of course, are not likely to hold. Rather, it is probable that past trends will continue into the future and that the proportion of youth of college age in attendance at higher institutions will continue to increase. One thing is clear: a substantially larger number of college and university teachers will be needed as our higher institutions face the increased demands that are to be made on them.

Significant in this connection is the project known as "The National Roster of Prospective College Teachers" initiated by the Association of American Colleges in 1945 through its Commission on Teacher Education. This is an attempt on a national scale to recruit able college Seniors for college teaching. Frank R. Kille, dean of Carleton College, describes the project in an article, "The National Roster of Prospective College Teachers," appearing in the *Association of American Colleges Bulletin* of March, 1953:

Each member college is invited to recommend Seniors who should be encouraged to do graduate work with the idea of preparation for college teaching. . . .

Arrangements will be made by the candidate selected, in consultation with officers of his own college, to enter graduate school for at least one year's training for college teaching. His studies during this first year will be carried on primarily from the point of view of preparation for college teaching rather than of meeting the formal requirements for an advanced degree.

Each college will be concerned with helping those appointed to find a practical solution of whatever financial problems may be involved.

Each college will undertake to offer each candidate it selects a one-year appointment to follow immediately after the year's graduate work. During this year the one appointed will be given opportunities for "in-service training" by serving either as an assistant in the department of his special interest, thus coming in close contact with experienced teachers, or as an instructor in charge of one or more classes under the supervision of a regular member of the department. Each college will determine the amount of compensation in each case, having in mind that the purpose of the arrangement is to provide opportunities for the one appointed and not to meet the institution's need for instructors.

At the end of this two-year period, as a result of his experience in graduate work and in the work of actual teaching, and with the help of his advisers, the student should be in a position to make a wise decision as to whether his lifework should be in teaching, and if so, what type of further training he should undertake.

The project seems to have been most successful in those instances where students received a grant to be applied toward their graduate study, but very few grants have been made. Plans are now under way to seek foundation support and financial assistance from the colleges nominating students in order to make grants more generally available.

Another encouraging development in connection with the shortage of qualified college and university teachers is the announcement of the creation of the Southern Fellowships Fund by the Council of Southern Universities, Inc., to administer a grant made by the General Education Board of some \$3,000,000 for a ten-year period. The purpose of the Fund is to

strengthen scholarship and teaching in southern institutions of higher education. Awards will be made for advanced study and research leading to the Ph.D. or similar degrees to teachers in colleges and universities in West Virginia, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, Texas, and Arkansas. The executive director of the Southern Fellowships Fund is Robert M. Lester, and the offices are located at 119 North Columbia Street, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

Who shall be given higher education?

There are those who argue that too many young people of limited ability are enrolled in our institutions of higher education. They see in the impending flood of applications for admission to college an opportunity to weed out the unfit and to grant admission to the superior students only. It seems clear, however, that for American higher education as a whole this will not be done. We are clearly committed to the proposition that some form of post-high-school educational opportunity should be made available to virtually all youth. It is certain, however, that the percentage increase in enrolments in the years ahead will vary widely from institution to institution. Most of the publicly controlled institutions will be limited in the extent to which they can exert any control over the increased numbers because of an explicit or implied mandate to admit all graduates of approved high schools. The privately controlled institutions

will vary widely in their response to the increased demands. The problem faced by many of the latter is well stated by President A. Blair Knapp, of Denison University, in the December, 1954, issue of *At Denison*. He says:

The pressure of applicants on all existing colleges will be tremendous and the pressure of alumni—and the general public—on institutions such as ours to admit more students will indeed be formidable.

It will be argued that Denison's responsibility to its constituency and to the public will require it. Despite the fact that Denison is privately financed and privately managed, its function is a public one, operated for the public welfare. To keep faith with this ideal, some will argue that we will have to expand. Probably in a few years we shall have 10 applicants for every vacancy. Some will contend that with all the highly qualified persons to choose from we will find it impossible to hold the line at 1,300 [the number which Denison set some time ago as its maximum enrolment]. Others believe that growth in numbers is the most valid criterion of progress; if we cease to grow, then progress stops.

I am deeply conscious of our public responsibility. I am concerned that Denison shall continue to be a *family* college, for fifth-generation Denisonians now appear with some regularity. We have traditionally sought to accommodate sons and daughters of alumni when qualified. To keep faith with this tradition will become increasingly difficult, but I am convinced that we can fulfil our responsibility to the public much better by doing a superior job with 1,300 students than by doing a fair job with 2,000. I am certain that such a large number would result in a deterioration in the quality of the Denison educational experience.

Let's look at our present situation. To do the kind of task to which we are dedicated we

need an increase in endowment of from \$8,000,000 to \$12,000,000. We need at least \$5,000,000 in new buildings. These figures are based on an enrolment of 1,300. If we were to move up to 2,000, we would practically have to double both figures since our present endowment is about \$5,000,000 and our buildings and facilities are valued in excess of \$6,000,000, not counting replacement costs. I do not see that kind of money in sight. With hard work and a little good fortune, it is conceivable that we might achieve what we need for 1,300. For the added enrolment the plant-and-facilities part would not be so serious as the lack of endowment. We all understand that buildings do not make a college great, but the quality of the men and the women of the faculty do. To enrol 2,000 students with finances suited to 1,300 would inevitably mean a second-rate faculty and staff.

The great increase in numbers is not accompanied by a proportionate increase in the numbers of graduates who are preparing to teach. The competition in the 1960's for top-quality college teachers is going to be great. Our present salary scale must be doubled by that time if we are to attract and hold the faculty we want. This is really the critical part of the whole proposition.

Then, too, we would inevitably change the character of the college by any such increase. An important aspect of the Denison experience is that we meet once a week together in convocation as a community of students and faculty. We meet every other week to worship together as a college community. We could not do this with 2,000 students. For nearly 125 years our destiny has been to be a small Christian college of liberal arts and sciences. I think we shall serve the public welfare best by continuing in that tradition. I want Denison to grow, but its growth should be in effectiveness and not in size. I shall do my best to resist the many pressures ahead which will seek to have us do otherwise.

Need to train persons with special talents

At the same time that our colleges and universities are concerning themselves with the problems of meeting the increased demands for higher education which will shortly be upon them, attention is being called to our failure to utilize effectively some of the best of our human resources and to the serious shortages of specialized personnel. A significant study of this problem has recently been reported in *America's Resources of Specialized Talent* (Harper & Bros., 1954) by Dael Wolfe, director of the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training. The report brings together materials relating to the country's trained personnel in the major professions. It points to the fact that shortages are to be expected for the next several years in engineering, science, medicine, nursing, schoolteaching, and a number of other fields. Even in the previously overcrowded fields of the humanities and social sciences, there are now shortages which may become serious.

It is interesting to note that these shortages exist despite tremendous increases over the years in the number of college graduates. The Commission points out that, in 1900, one out of every sixty boys and girls reaching twenty-two years of age in that year received a college degree. Today, one out of every eight young people of this age receives a college degree. But de-

spite this dramatic change in the per cent of youth receiving a college education, we are still failing to make full use of our available talent. The Commission points out that, of the top one-fifth of high-school graduates in terms of ability, only slightly over one-half enter college and only 43 per cent graduate. Only 60 per cent of the highest 5 per cent of our high-school graduates in terms of ability earn college degrees. It is from the ranks of these superior young people that we should be recruiting the leadership for our professions. For the most part, those who do not go to college do not have an opportunity to provide this leadership since a college education has become practically a requirement for admission to most of the professions. Even if the per cent of youth of college age in attendance at college continues to increase, as it doubtless will, this situation in itself offers no assurance that we shall not continue to waste some of the best of our human resources through failure to recruit some of our most able high-school graduates.

A number of steps can be taken in an effort to correct this condition, such as more adequate counseling at all levels in the educational process, better articulation between high school and college, and financial-aid programs which will help to eliminate the economic barrier faced by many of our superior youth. Actually, the financial barrier rises higher each year, and the problem therefore becomes more acute all the time. In an effort to keep pace

with rising costs and to take up some of the loss in proportionate income from endowment and other invested funds, tuition and fees in both publicly and privately supported higher institutions have been increased substantially in recent years. There is no reason to believe that this trend will not continue.

The matter of the increasing cost of higher education is receiving attention in the Eighty-fourth Congress in the form of a bill introduced in the House of Representatives in February. The bill provides that 30 per cent of student fees paid directly to an institution of higher education organized not-for-profit could be taken as a tax credit on the income tax of the person paying the tuition. A ceiling of \$450 for each student would be placed on the amount of the tax credit. Thus, no tax credit would be allowed on tuition in excess of \$1,500 per year. If passed, this measure will help greatly in lowering the financial barrier faced by many prospective college students.

NORMAN BURNS

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

NEW OR UNUSUAL practices in use in the high schools are described from time to time in these pages of the *School Review*. In the following paragraphs we present such statements from eight school systems located in seven states.

The editor would be pleased to receive brief descriptions of innovating

practices in other schools. These may concern almost any aspect of the school, such as curriculum, methods, extra-curriculum, provisions for individual differences, housing, equipment, community relations, etc. Of particular interest right now are the plans or programs, other than the mere provision of more classrooms and more teaching staff, that are being considered to take care of the bulging high-school enrolments.

Case conferences aid teachers Most schools are not making effective use of the great amount of information that is collected about boys and girls and then filed away. George L. Keppers, assistant director of guidance in the schools of Albuquerque, New Mexico, feels that the case conference has not received the attention it deserves as a means of sharing and interpreting the available data. He says:

The primary purpose of the case conference should be the sharing of information regarding the child's family history, health, scholastic achievement, aptitude, interests, personality, behavior, and other pertinent matters. These facts, by providing insight into the child's problems, should be useful in alleviating special difficulties encountered by youth.

All school personnel having any contact with the child should attend the case conference, the size of the group depending on the extent of the case and the staff available. If psychologists, nurses, doctors, counselors, and other professional persons besides classroom teachers have worked with a boy or girl, they should be included. One person should be responsible for calling the conference. The principal must be in favor of the

procedure and, if not directly responsible for convening the group, he should delegate the authority to bring the others together. The school counselor or the school nurse, preferably the former, is the logical person to set the machinery in operation.

In general, a case conference should include four phases:

1. *Presentation of the facts of the case.*—Interpretations have no place in this phase of the conference. For example, a statement that "John is lazy" is very different from the report, "John doesn't finish his work."

2. *Interpreting the facts.*—What does it mean when Bill talks all the time or Susan sits and dreams?

3. *Possible causes underlying the child's behavior.*—These are closely related to interpretations. Is Bill looking for recognition he doesn't get at home or on the playground? Is Susan jealous of her younger or older sister?

4. *Suggestions for further study and work with the child.*—Should the suggestion be made to the parents that they seek counseling? Should the coach give Bill an opportunity to receive recognition on the playground? Is there a need for a change in the child's schedule?

Factors to be considered in carrying out the case conference are:

1. *Time element.*—When, during the crowded school day, shall the conference be held? This is a matter of school policy, but the experience of the writer has been that the lunch hour works out well. Setting a conference at such an hour presupposes interest in this sort of activity, that teachers will be willing to give up some free time.

2. *Presenting positive as well as negative traits of the child.*—The attitude should not be like that reflected in the remark, "There isn't any need for me to attend since I don't know anything bad about him."

3. *Realistic expectations.*—Not all cases have "fairy-tale" endings. The case conference is not a panacea for all the problems in the school or, as some would like it to be, "quick guidance."

4. *Confidential nature of the conference.*—Members of the conference must respect confidences. To arrive at proper interpretations and understanding of the case, many facts must of necessity be revealed. The existing rapport between the child and teacher or counselor can be destroyed by one wagging tongue.

5. *Differentiation of causes of behavior from symptoms of behavior.*—Too often, overt acts of behavior are treated rather than the deep-seated cause of the behavior.

The case conference, while not a sure cure for students' problems, does provide for a meeting of minds, a sharing of information, and a chance to talk out a problem in a logical and inoffensive manner. To repeat, not all case conferences end in typical "fairy-tale" style, but experience has shown that they do result in some change, if not in the pupils, at least in the persons dealing with them. This is the result of better understanding, leading to acceptance of the pupils.

Recruiting teachers at the source Each month Lee L. Caldwell, the superintendent of schools at

Hammond, Indiana, publishes a brochure, *Notes on Education*, for the information of the public. The February, 1955, number is entitled *To Future Teachers of America: Teaching as a Life Investment*. It is "addressed to young people who want to invest their lives and the future in something very much worth while, which will provide for them a good living, give them a great deal of satisfaction, and be of service to their country."

After pointing out that "now is the time for high-school and college students" to make their life-career plans, the attractive leaflet presents facts

about our country's growth, the need for teachers, the opportunities offered by the profession, and the satisfactions in teaching. It closes with a statement about the importance of education in our future. With its factual yet inspiring presentation, the booklet should be of assistance to young people who are considering teaching as their lifework.

Vitalized training in citizenship Awareness of the problems troubling the community and the world and a willingness and desire to do his share in solving the problems must be imparted to the modern youth in high school. Pompton Lakes High School in Pompton Lakes, New Jersey, makes special efforts to develop in the students the attributes of good citizenship. Donald H. Yott, teacher of the second course in United States history, has supplied us with the following description of some of the activities designed to accomplish this aim:

The past two years, being especially interesting in the political field, presented unlimited project material for political development in the high school's young people. The students co-operated with Mayor Charles Styles and his committee in inducing residents to register. Students, under the supervision of an adult committee, spent an entire morning canvassing the community, gathering information on forms provided by the adult group and then tabulating the results. The students were amazed at the default of citizenship in the adult population and at the political immaturity of the adults and their lack of knowledge concerning their political obligations and responsibilities.

The next activity, stimulated by their first encounter with the voting public, concerned itself with encouraging the local people to vote in the November, 1952, election. This project was entirely the students' own, planned and carried out by them. Under the direction of a group of adults, they made and distributed throughout the communities posters aimed at reminding the local residents to vote. They secured radio time to present a breakfast talk on the plan. Baby-sitting, transportation, and telephone committees were organized to work on election day. Huge thermometers, constructed in the woodshop, were placed through the towns on election day, and the number of persons who had voted were marked on these every hour by a committee of students.

The results of this activity were gratifying. In communities in which students were active, 90 per cent or more of the registered voters cast their ballots. Both political organizations gave parties for the students in their locality, and recently the Oakland political organization amended its by-laws to allow eighteen-year-olds to join and to have voting privileges in the club's activities.

Having observed the political behavior and knowledge of adults, the students felt that they could contribute much in a positive manner to the political scene, locally and nationally, and they instigated a state-wide movement to have the legislature place on the ballot a referendum to lower the voting age in New Jersey to eighteen.

Letters explaining the purpose of the activity were sent to every secondary school in the state, with a statement of the duties of each co-operating school, sample petitions, and reasons for the lowering of the voting age. Students in our school canvassed their community, obtaining 15 per cent of the registered voters to sign the petition. All returned petitions were presented to Assemblyman Arthur Vervaeke (majority party), of Bergen County, and to Assemblyman James Jamieson (minority party), of Warren Coun-

ty. Follow-up measures were carried on in the fall of 1954 by the in-coming Senior class.

Through all this activity is woven a unit of work on politics and government. The history, machinery, and operation of political parties are carefully and thoroughly studied. Government organization and functioning, locally and nationally, fill out the political picture for the students.

A practical project stemming from this study of political parties and government is the Change of Town Offices. Here, the students follow the established methods for obtaining office: organizing political parties, making a slate of candidates, campaigning, and holding an election in school. Elected students take over the communities for one day and operate as mayor, town council, police chief, teachers, principal, and other officials. Weeks of careful preparation and supervision show these teen-agers that the tasks of government are complicated and require men of ability to discharge them.

Machines for voting in schools Students in Philadelphia senior high and vocational-technical schools are being prepared for their duties as adult citizens by conducting their school elections on voting machines. According to a story in the January 10 number of *School News and Views*, issued by the Philadelphia public schools, the program was instituted on the recommendation of the Seminar on Education for Political Democracy:

The use of these machines is being made possible by Mr. Thomas P. McHenry, president of city commissioners. He has provided the machines and is sending Mr. Joseph Evans and Mr. James Brooks, to assist the student association in each school in setting up the machines and taking the count at the close of the election. The Board of Education is transporting the machines.

In addition to the elections, other schools are holding class demonstrations on one Jamestown and one Shoup voting machine.

Two high schools, Bartram and Northeast, held elections in December. In both schools the campaigns were "more lively and active than usual, students becoming intensely interested in voting in the election." At Bartram High School, voting procedures paralleled those of actual voting for city officials. The students "checked their registration and recorded their names in the home-room books, had the operation of the machines explained by election officials, and lined up to vote on the machines."

Salvaging the retarded readers

More and more students are entering high school without sufficient skill in reading to enable them to do the reading required in the content subjects. Administrators and teachers will be interested in the successful program developed at Hornell (New York) High School for a systematic attack on this problem. We are indebted to Mrs. Audrey K. Boag, director of reading and testing in the Hornell public schools, and Margaret Neild, reading instructor in the English department of the Hornell High School, for the following account of the plan:

A developmental reading program has been functioning for approximately five years within the framework of the routine English curriculum of Hornell High School, and special developmental reading classes have proved beneficial to both the nonacademic and the superior students. Recently we be-

came convinced that a course designed for the students of average or above-average mental ability who were reading below their capacity level would prove helpful.

From experience we realized the need for careful screening in order to avoid placing the nonacademic or the disciplinary problem child with these reluctant readers. Candidates for this class were not selected from any one year in high school. They were generally between the thirtieth and fiftieth percentile on a reliable verbal test of intelligence and between the sixtieth and eightieth percentile on a nonverbal intelligence test. They averaged at about fifth-grade level in the four tests of the Gates Silent Reading Tests. Health records of all candidates were scrutinized for possible physical disabilities, such as poor eyesight or poor hearing, which might be causative factors in reading retardation. In general, these pupils suffered from over-all poor achievement in subject areas requiring extensive reading even though their mental capacity was average or above, from lack of knowledge of how to use their time, from the habit of lip reading, and from inability to secure or comprehend information from secondary-school reading materials even though many of them were able to assimilate enough information from oral classroom discussion to make passing marks.

The students knew from the beginning that they would be released from this extra reading class just as soon as they had corrected their mechanical difficulties and improved their reading achievement to bring it into harmony with their capacity. This feature gave the pupils a positive attitude toward the work done in the class. As students were released from the corrective class to work independently, additional students were referred to the class by the teachers and by guidance personnel.

Upon admittance to the class, the pupils were made aware of the level of reading that they had achieved in the four areas of the Gates tests. In appraising their reading progress, we emphasized their strengths and gave

them a realization that reading is an acquired skill—a skill that can be gained and improved with practice. We stressed the fact that weakness in any area of reading or in speed of reading is detrimental to success in any educational situation.

In helping pupils to develop reading power to a maximum level, we recognized that one of the fundamental factors was that of adjusting all materials to the ease level of the student. Therefore all instructional and practice material used was at the development level of the individual student. By providing exercises of this type for practice, we encouraged pupils, through their success, to eliminate their weaknesses, correct their mechanical difficulties, and improve their strong points.

As they practiced reading selections of increasing difficulty, pupils were continually made aware of their progress by making their own chart records of their comprehension. Time was also allowed for viewing the results of work covered over a period of weeks and for analyzing retest results obtained on the Gates test. Pupils were instructed in the various techniques and skills of reading: skimming, locating information, reading for general significance, reading for details, reading to follow directions, reading to organize, and reading to predict the outcome of events. They were also helped to increase their span of recognition and their attention to reading materials. Even though the emphasis in this corrective reading course was definitely on skill-training, we found that, with the acquisition of improved reading habits and power, pupils began of their own accord to read more extensively for recreation.

Although this corrective reading course is not a panacea for all reading disabilities, it has seemed to fill a definite need by giving the retarded reader direct help in the acquisition of the skills so necessary for success in the secondary-school program. It has, moreover, provided a satisfying experience for the retarded reader and has been a vital factor in his adjustment to the classroom situation.

Courses for the able students Next autumn the seven regular San Diego city high schools will establish honors courses for students of outstanding scholastic ability. Twelfth-grade students meeting specified achievement requirements will be offered honors courses in English, social studies, chemistry, physics, and mathematics. Superintendent Ralph C. Dailard anticipates the following results, according to an item appearing in the *Superintendent's Bulletin* for February 18, 1955:

First, superior students will be given an enriched study program and will be provided a real challenge to their ability.

Second, it is believed that the program may result in acceleration for students at the college level. In several eastern cities where similar programs have been adopted, honors courses are accepted for college Freshman credit.

Finally, the honors program will help to provide recognition for outstanding scholastic achievement in the same manner that recognition is received for athletic, musical, or dramatic achievement.

Students learn how to type blood Eight teachers of biology in Cincinnati high schools have completed a course in blood-typing and cross-matching at the Clinical Laboratories, Christ Hospital. The program was formulated by Dr. Philip Wasserman, supervisor of the Blood Procurement Program for Civil Defense, and Kenneth E. Vordenberg supervisor of science in the secondary schools. The teachers are enrolled as members of the Cincinnati-Hamilton County Civil Defense Program,

Health Service Division. The teachers, in turn, have trained more than 400 students in senior high schools in the techniques of the blood program. The school system's bulletin, *Better Schools*, for February 4 reports:

Through these efforts a group of students has been developed with a background of knowledge and experience sufficient for them to operate as technicians for the typing and cross-matching of blood on a mass basis in the event of a catastrophe in this community. Teachers feel that not only are they of service in the defense program but also they have gained a great deal of practical information that can be shared in the classroom.

Advice of high-school graduates in college Late in December the superintendent of the Unified Schools in Vista, California, Mr. William Paul Schlechte, was host to members of the 1954 graduates of the Vista High School who had been attending colleges during the first semester. Fourteen graduates in attendance at eleven colleges responded to the invitation. After refreshments and a period of visiting, they offered these suggestions on making better preparation for college life:

Vista High School students entering college should:

Learn how to study.

Learn how to organize ideas and facts into a connecting theme.

Be able to skim in reading, which would make possible reading of supplementary materials in addition to the textbook.

Have a more wholesome attitude toward study and scholarship.

Know how to summarize and paraphrase. Have essay-type examinations.

Units of high-school work should be more

difficult. It should be graded up so that prospective college students might know what to expect.

Mechanics in English are necessary, but do not hinder as much as lack of ability to write. There needs to be more practice in writing; papers should be graded by the teacher and the student required to rewrite. There was 100 per cent agreement on this point. . . .

On the positive side, activities were listed as being helpful in making adjustments in college. All seemed to agree, however, that the adjustments to social life and the extreme change from high-school life and living at home were the greatest problems to which they found it necessary to make adjustment.

CONFERENCE ON HUMAN RELATIONS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

THE RELATIONS of the school administrator with his staff, his board, and the public will be studied during a five-day conference to be held at the University of Chicago on July 11-15, 1955. Sponsored by the Midwest Administration Center, the conference will have as its general topic, "Human Relations in Educational Administration."

Commenting on one aspect of the conference, Francis S. Chase, director of the center and chairman of the University's Department of Education, says:

We are beginning to achieve a better understanding of how the morale and effectiveness of teachers and other workers are affected by their relationships with their colleagues and with supervisors and administrators. This conference will consider how the knowledge accumulated through numerous studies in education and industry may be used in the organization and administration of schools.

The conference will be open to superintendents, principals, teachers, supervisors, school-board members, personnel of state departments of education, college and university faculty members, and others interested in the administration of schools. Persons participating in the conference program will include leading administrators, school-board members, and individuals who have been conducting extensive research in various aspects of human relations.

Additional information regarding the conference may be obtained from William W. Savage, associate director of the Midwest Administration Center, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON READING

THE Eighteenth Annual Reading Conference will be held at the University of Chicago from June 28 through July 1, 1955. The theme of the conference is "Oral Aspects of Reading." In planning the conference, special attention is being given to the problems faced by teachers at the secondary-school and junior-college levels.

The opening session will emphasize the expanding role of oral reading in our society today, both in school and in life. This topic will be presented by Harold Shane, Northwestern University. A panel composed of students and persons representing various professions and vocations will explain the uses they make of oral reading. This

will be followed by a careful analysis of the characteristics of effective oral reading, presented by William S. Gray, University of Chicago. Subsequent general sessions for June 28 and 29 are as follows:

Language Readiness for Oral Reading, RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Indiana University

Nature of Effective Speech in Oral Reading, JOSEPH M. WEPMAN, University of Chicago

Speech and Reading in Action, MARDEL OGILVIE, Queens College, Flushing, New York

Each general session will be followed by separate sectional meetings for junior high school teachers and for teachers in senior high schools and junior colleges. The following problems will be considered:

Language Readiness for Oral Reading

In Grades VII-IX, ROSEMARY HART CASE, Maine Township High School, Des Plaines, Illinois

In Grades X-XIV, EUNICE HELMKAMP, Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago

Methods for Improving Oral Expression

In Grades VII-IX, ALICE FLICKINGER, Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago

In Grades X-XIV, KENNETH BURNS, University of Illinois

Demonstrations of Speech and Reading in Action

Dramatics, DOROTHY LASHER, Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago

Discussion, EDWARD W. ROSENHEIM, JR., The College, University of Chicago

On June 30 and July 1, the program will center attention on methods for developing effective oral reading and the use made of these skills. The topics and speakers for the general sessions will be:

Phonetic Elements and Principles Basic to Reading, MARY C. AUSTIN, Western Reserve University

Relative Emphasis of Oral and Silent Reading in the School Program, NILA BANTON SMITH, New York University

Reading and Appreciation of Poetry and Prose, IRVIN C. POLEY, Vice-principal, Germantown Friends School, Philadelphia

Developing Literate Listening, DONALD BIRD, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri

Principles Underlying the Teaching of Choral Reading, CARRIE RASMUSSEN, Public Schools, Madison, Wisconsin

Each of these presentations will be followed by sectional meetings:

Developing Understanding and Skills in Word Recognition

In Grades VII-IX, HERMESE ROBERTS, Principal, Webster School, Chicago, Illinois

In Grades X-XIV, BROTHER LEONARD COURTNEY, F.S.C., St. Mary's College, Winona, Minnesota

Classroom Procedures in Improving All Aspects of Oral Reading

In Grades VII-IX, MILDRED C. LETTON, University of Chicago

In Grades X-XIV, EONA DE VERE, Von Steuben High School, Chicago, Illinois

Methods for Improving Appreciation of Oral Presentations

In Grades VII-IX, MARK NEVILLE, Headmaster, Latin School of Chicago

In Grades X-XIV, MARION DIXON, Doncaster College, Institute of Education, Sheffield, England

Learning a Choral Selection

In Grades VII-IX, CARRIE RASMUSSEN, Public Schools, Madison, Wisconsin

In Grades X-XIV, HELEN WILLIAMS, Hickman High School, Columbia, Missouri

Of special interest to principals, heads of departments, superintendents, and supervisors will be the supervisory sections paralleling each of the other sectional meetings.

All teachers, librarians, and administrative officers who are interested in the foregoing problems are cordially invited to attend the conference. Copies of the program and detailed information concerning fees, rooming facilities, and registration procedures may be obtained from Mrs. Helen M. Robinson, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

HALF-TUITION FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIANS

THE Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago announces that librarians in elementary and secondary schools are eligible for a remission of one-half the usual tuition rate for courses taken in the School. This is in accord with a new plan introduced at the University of Chicago to encourage teachers to improve their professional competency. The plan, which grants a 50 per cent reduction of the normal tuition rate to elementary- and secondary-school teachers in private or public schools, has been interpreted as applicable also to librarians and teacher-librarians in these schools.

A course which costs the ordinary student \$100.00 can be taken by a teacher or school librarian for \$50.00. A normal program of three departmental courses would cost \$120.00 instead of the \$240.00 usually assessed. The reduction applies to courses in any department of the University and will be made up to a maximum of nine courses beyond the Master's degree.

WORKSHOP IN ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE Workshop in Adolescent Development in the Secondary Schools at the University of Chicago will focus on the psychological and social development of normal adolescents and will consider aspects and contemporary problems of American teen-age society. Lecture and discussion sessions, with theories and case-study materials, will be used in analyzing the adolescent school experiences and the role of the teacher in facilitating normal psychosocial development.

The workshop begins July 12 and continues through August 19, meeting on Tuesday and Thursday, from 11:00 to 12:30, each week. It may be taken for credit by students admitted to the University. The customary University tuition fees will apply. Elementary- or secondary-school teachers registered for credit will be eligible for tuition remission of 50 per cent of the normal tuition fees.

Inquiries about the workshop should be addressed to Professor Robert D. Hess, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE NEA CONVENTION

SPECIAL arrangements have been made for teachers who wish to participate in the conferences, workshops, and courses to be given at the

University of Chicago and also attend the convention of the National Education Association. Courses and workshops beginning before the convention will either be recessed on July 3-8 or have make-up sessions in the following week. A number of courses and workshops will not begin until July 9 or later so that teachers may register for study after the convention is over.

During the convention the University will hold open house. Teachers are welcome to come to the quadrangles and visit the Laboratory Schools, the Reading Clinic, the Center for the Study of Instructional Materials, the Counseling Center, the Center for Children's Books, and other facilities.

The Library will have on display several exhibits, one of which will honor John Dewey, who was the first director of the Laboratory Schools.

On Thursday afternoon, July 7, all persons attending the convention are invited to make a tour of the places of interest at the University of Chicago. In the afternoon the University will give its guests a tea in Ida Noyes Hall, 1212 East Fifty-ninth Street. For detailed information see the *Convention Program and Exhibit Guide*, or consult the representatives at the University of Chicago booth in the Conrad Hilton Hotel, or write to the Center for Teacher Education, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

Authors of news notes and articles

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by NORMAN BURNS, professor of education at the University of Chicago and secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. MAURICE R. AHRENS, professor of education at the University of Florida, examines the critical problems facing secondary education because of the responsibility placed on the high school for educating practically all children rather than a chosen few. NORMAN E. GRONLUND, assistant professor of educational psychology at the University of Illinois, reports a study from which he concludes that a relation exists between sociometric status and teaching effectiveness but not between accuracy of social perception and teaching effectiveness. LEILA STEVENS, principal of the College Laboratory School, State Teachers College, Frostburg, Maryland, presents data which show student reaction to a disciplinary situation involving pupil, teacher, and principal. DEAN FITZGERALD, principal of the Mark Twain School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, gives an

overview of the American School program in Latin America, describing the variations and adaptations of three types of schools: the church-sponsored, the company-sponsored, and the independent co-operative. J. W. GETZELS, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago, and KENNETH D. NORBERG, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California, present a list of selected references on educational psychology.

Reviewers of books

G. T. BUSWELL, professor of educational psychology, University of California at Berkeley. ROBERT P. CURRY, assistant superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio. FRANK S. ALBRIGHT, supervisor of secondary education in the public schools of Gary, Indiana. OSCAR F. SCHAAF, head of the department of mathematics, Eugene High School, Eugene, Oregon, and instructor in mathematics education at the University of Oregon. WALTER M. LIFTON, associate professor of education, University of Illinois.

CONSIDERATIONS IN PLANNING SECONDARY EDUCATION OF THE FUTURE

MAURICE R. AHRENS

University of Florida



SECONDARY EDUCATION is at the crossroads! Within the next few years, decisions must be made which will determine the future of secondary education for the next 25-50 years. There have been times when decisions could be postponed, but in today's period of crisis it is mandatory that leaders in the secondary schools face up to the critical problems which are pressing for solution.

Let us look at the facts. In 1950 there were approximately six and a half million youth in our secondary schools. It is predicted that by 1960 the enrolments will have increased by two and one-half million students.¹ The increase will probably continue until 1965. In 1920, 32.3 per cent of the youth between fourteen and seventeen years of age, inclusive, were enrolled in school; in 1940 this per cent had increased to 73.3;² and in 1952 it was close to 75.³

With the swelling enrolments resulting from the increase in birth rates and the continued improvement in

holding power, the secondary-school population of today and of the future is quite different from that of 25-35 years ago. The "ivory tower" of the past in which secondary schools provided education for a chosen few is nonexistent today. Instead, education for all children through Grade XII is fast becoming a reality. Youth who were eliminated from school because of lack of academic ability are now, in increasing numbers, continuing to stay in school.

Although the nature of the secondary-school enrolment is quite different today, the basic curriculum is essentially the same as it was when comparatively few adolescents continued through high school. Granted, elective subjects have been added, but the requirements have been changed very little. The basic curriculum is still

² United States Office of Education, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1949-50," Table 16. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948-50*, chap. i. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953.

³ United States Office of Education, "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951-52," p. 7. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950-52*, chap. v. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1954.

¹ Emery M. Foster and Carol Joy Hobson, "Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment in the United States 1929-30 to 1959-60," *School Life*, XXXVII (January, 1955), 54.

geared to the needs of the minority of the students who enter colleges after graduation. As the enrolment and holding power increase, it is quite possible that the per cent of students completing their education with high school will increase and the per cent of graduates who go on to college will decrease. This means that there will be a more urgent need to develop curriculums which are consumable by all, not just a few, youth in our secondary schools.

Yes, secondary education is at the crossroads and is facing a crisis which must be met with courage and determination. Much has been written about improving the secondary-school curriculum, and perhaps the pressures of the present and of the immediate future will hasten the time when a program which meets the needs of youth will become reality. A few of the many problems and needs which demand careful study are explored in the following paragraphs.

DECISIONS NEEDED BEFORE SCHOOLS ARE BUILT

A problem which demands immediate attention is that of housing the added millions of youth who will soon be in our secondary schools. In the next decade, billions of dollars will be expended in building new junior and senior high schools. The prospect raises serious questions. Should buildings be constructed to provide for an already outmoded curriculum and type of organization? Or should a long-range curriculum design and pat-

tern be determined first and buildings designed to provide adequately for this curriculum? One thing is certain: if buildings are designed on the basis of the present secondary-school curriculum, the opportunities for improving the curriculum to meet the needs of youth will be fraught with serious limitations and problems. The buildings which are constructed in the coming years will be in use for the next 75-100 years, and little change can be, or will be, made in them. Surely it is worth a herculean effort to plan a curriculum design so that buildings will be serviceable for the curriculum of the future.

NEED TO RE-EXAMINE GOALS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

During the past fifty years, several national commissions, after careful study, made very challenging and significant statements of the purposes of secondary education. In 1918 the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education formulated the famous *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*.⁴ In 1938 the Educational Policies Commission published a comprehensive report, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*,⁵

⁴ Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 1918, No. 35.

⁵ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1938.

and in 1944 the National Association of Secondary-School Principals outlined "The Imperative Needs of Youth" in *Planning for American Youth*.⁶ In addition to these statements by national organizations, schools and school systems all over the country have involved teachers and administrators in setting up objectives for secondary education.

Careful examination and analysis of these statements indicate that all have much in common and that the differences are minor in importance. This similarity indicates that there is a heartening unity of philosophy and purposes for the secondary-school program.

The degree to which these statements have influenced and provided a sense of direction to the secondary-school program cannot be clearly ascertained. There is, however, much evidence to indicate that the impact on the program has been meager. Although we give lip service to these generally accepted statements of philosophy and objectives, in planning the secondary program we do little to implement them. It is not uncommon for a faculty to spend months in formulating a report on philosophy and purposes, which is then filed away or placed on a shelf, where it serves only one function—to catch dust. Only infrequently is the work of the teachers

used as the basis for improving the school program.

In the area of goals, a problem which needs careful consideration and examination is whether the aim of teaching shall be to have the students acquire and retain facts or whether it shall be to develop behaviors, attitudes, habits, and social skills which are in harmony with, and which serve to improve, the democratic way of life. In other words, shall we teach facts for facts' sake, or shall facts be used to help youth develop desirable democratic behaviors?

Since the school program should be based upon the desired purposes of secondary education, it is imperative that we re-examine our purposes, agree upon those which we believe to be important and significant, and use them as the frame of reference and basis for planning the program.

NEED TO GEAR THE PROGRAM TO PROBLEMS OF YOUTH AND SOCIETY

Secondary education has been concerned mainly with passing on, from generation to generation, facts and knowledges which have accumulated in our culture. When this is the primary purpose of the curriculum, current problems and the impact of society on youth are usually subordinated. Facts are usually taught through logically organized systems of knowledge in the subject fields. The hope of the teacher is that these facts will be retained and used when they are needed or that, through some phenomenon, the facts will be translated

⁶ *Planning for American Youth*, p. 43. A Summary of Education for All American Youth, a Publication of the Educational Policies Commission. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1944.

into behavior changes by the student. These hopes, of course, are psychologically unsound.

Another approach to curriculum development is to base the classroom experiences upon problems which are of concern to youth and upon problems which emerge as youth interacts with society. Here, facts are used to solve problems; here, facts have a real purpose. As problems are solved within the context of the democratic ideal, desirable behaviors are developed which contribute toward effective living in our democratic society.

There are multitudes of unsolved problems, many of which are of great concern to youth. Although adolescents have many personal concerns, they are also troubled about social and economic problems, such as juvenile delinquency, international relations, divorce, preparation for marriage, and a host of others. Youth want the opportunity to work toward the solution of these problems. It is the responsibility of secondary schools to provide that opportunity and to help young people learn problem-solving skills.

NEED TO RE-EXAMINE THE OVER-ALL CURRICULUM DESIGN

Little attention has been given to the over-all curriculum design in secondary education. Rather, the design, if it can be said that there is one, has "grown" like Topsy. The basic program of requirements has continued to be composed primarily of those subjects which were originally planned for the college-bound students, and these

still remain even though only 35 per cent of the graduates go to college.⁷ The electives or special-interest subjects have been added without rhyme or reason.

There is rather general agreement that the design of the secondary-school program should be based upon a core of general-education experiences and special-interest areas. There is, however, much disagreement and confusion about what should be included in these two areas. The concept that general education is education for all youth is accepted by most educators. But what should be included in such a program is interpreted in many ways, varying from the belief that general education is composed of a pattern of subjects required of all students to the contention that general education is that part of the school curriculum in which an attempt is made to help youth solve common problems (personal, social, civic, and economic) which are of concern to them and which are imposed by society. The first concept of general education could be satisfied with a subject-centered curriculum. The second, which is in harmony with the philosophy and purposes of education generally accepted today, would entail a problem-centered curriculum based upon real life experiences of youth. The special-interest curriculum is that part of the total program which serves

⁷ *America's Resources of Specialized Talent*, pp. 311-12. The Report of the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training. Prepared by Dael Wolfe, Director. New York: Harper & Bros., 1954.

to meet the special needs and interests of individuals and groups. This would include both vocational and nonvocational experiences.

It is evident that the need to re-examine the secondary-school curriculum design is imperative. Until a design is agreed upon, little but confusion can come from attempts to improve the curriculum by tinkering and piecemeal additions.

NEED TO DEVELOP IMPROVED METHODS OF TEACHING

Since the student enrolment in secondary schools is changing rapidly, there is a corresponding change in the range of the students' abilities, interests, and needs. Consequently, the methods used for students who were college bound need to be carefully examined. Because of this range, teachers cannot expect all students to be equally well prepared in all subjects. This means that teachers will have to be more cognizant of individual differences. It also means that all students cannot be taught the same thing at the same time. Hence much teaching will have to be done in small groups and some on an individual basis.

When the curriculum is based upon the problems of youth and society, new approaches to teaching will have to be developed. Identification and solution of problems make it necessary for pupils and teacher to plan together, with the teacher assuming a new kind of leadership role.

Where these methods of teaching

are used, the school plant will have to be constructed to facilitate the process. Some schools have already been built with small rooms adjacent to the classrooms where groups of students may work on problems of concern to them.

NEED FOR NEW, COMPREHENSIVE MATERIALS FOR LEARNING

In a program based upon the problems of youth and society, the textbook, which in many classrooms has been the source of information, becomes only one source. The solution of problems demands wide use of library and reference books, current magazines, pamphlets, maps, globes and charts, audio-visual materials—in fact, any kind of material which provides pertinent information. In addition, the community becomes a laboratory for information and study and a place in which ideas can be explored and tested.

Such copious use of materials has implications for the planning of secondary-school buildings. A library alone is inadequate. Rather it is essential that a materials center be planned to include space for library and reference materials; a room for preview and storage of audio-visual materials; a photographic darkroom; a map, globe, and chart room; a textbook-room; space for displaying filmstrips, slides, records, transcriptions, and tape recordings; a teacher-pupil work-room equipped so that materials can be produced; and space for other materials which may be unearthed by the

faculty. Centralizing materials in a center facilitates the use of these resources by teachers and students.

NEED TO RE-EXAMINE THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Many of the guidance programs in secondary schools are based upon the belief that one or two counselors can help all students in the school with their individual problems. In large schools, counselors have from a hundred to a thousand students as counselees. It is, of course, the height of folly to believe that a counselor, under these conditions, can provide continuous guidance for the students. Since the situation is untenable, counselors have become disciplinarians and program-planners, who see their counselees once or twice a year and know only a few of them intimately.

Secondary-school administrators are coming to understand that leadership in guidance demands intimate, continuous relationship with a reasonable number of students. The classroom teacher is the only person who can have this close relationship. In many schools guidance has been decentralized, and the counselors are classroom teachers. The same students are in a counseling teacher's class for the entire three or four years of high school. The core curriculum has made it possible for the counseling teacher to have his counselees in class for as much as two or three periods a day. In this type of organization the teachers come to know pupils intimately and can help them solve com-

mon problems in the classroom. The counseling teacher is usually given a period or two a day to work with students on problems that are individual in nature.

Where this organization for guidance is developed, the counselor plays a new role. He works with counseling teachers to help them become more successful in their guidance responsibilities and also assists them in making case studies of students who have unusual problems.

NEED TO FIND WAYS OF EVALUATING BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

Evaluation in the secondary schools of the past was comparatively simple. The purposes of the classroom experiences were to help students acquire and to retain facts and academic skills. Over a period of years, teachers were able to develop methods which served well in appraising growth of students toward these objectives.

Evaluation in the modern secondary school is not so simple. Where the curriculum is based upon the problems of youth and society, the outcomes are changes in attitudes, habits, social skills, and other behavior. Little has been done in helping students appraise their growth toward behavioral objectives; and, until methods and procedures are devised to do this, the real function of the life-experience curriculum will not be understood and fully appreciated by teachers and students. It behooves us to work as diligently in discovering methods of appraising behavioral changes as we did

in developing tests to measure retention of facts and skills.

NEED TO DETERMINE BEST TYPE OF ORGANIZATION

There is much confusion in the minds of educators relating to the pattern of organization for secondary education. Although more than half of the schools in our nation have moved away from the 8-4 plan,⁸ the new organizational patterns have taken many forms. Among those now functioning are the 7-5, 6-2-4, 6-6, 6-3-3, 6-4-4 plans, as well as some others. Since billions are to be spent for buildings and since the secondary program must inevitably be reorganized, it is important and necessary that trends in organizational pattern be clarified.

For many years the junior high school has been a stepchild of secondary education. In its present form it is a miniature high school. It was not intended to be so. There is great need to re-examine the purposes of the junior high school and to make an honest attempt to develop a program based upon these purposes.

Much experimentation has been carried on with varying kinds of organizational patterns. It behooves us to pull together the results of these experiments and to attempt to agree upon a flexible pattern. How can we plan buildings for the future intelligently unless this is done?

⁸ United States Office of Education, "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951-52," p. 23. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950-52*, chap. v. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1954.

NEED TO FIND NEW WAYS OF WORKING FOR CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

Many attempts have been made to improve the curriculum on a state-wide, county-wide, and city-wide level. Curriculums developed at these levels have fallen far short of the expected goal of influencing the teacher-learning situation in the classroom. Experiments carried on during the past decade indicate that curriculum improvement is more certain to take place at the "grass-roots" level, where all teachers who are concerned can participate in the planning.

This new focus for curriculum improvement places new responsibilities on the individual school and its principal and faculty. The individual school becomes the primary unit for program development. The principal assumes a new role of instructional leadership. The teachers become active participants in identifying problems, carrying on the research necessary to solve the problems, developing a plan of action based on the solution, and testing the plan of action against the realities of the classroom. This is the scientific method of curriculum development—one which is designed to meet the needs of the student and the community. It offers much promise for an improved program in secondary schools of the future.

In addition to obtaining the active participation of teachers, it is desirable and essential to involve parents and students in program-planning. Many schools and school systems

have discovered, too late, that involving teachers in curriculum development is not enough. The schools belong to the people, and parents, particularly, have a right to participate in the planning. Since students are the recipients of the curriculum, it is reasonable to deduce that they too should play an active role in program-planning.

THERE ARE MANY UNSOLVED
PROBLEMS

In the foregoing discussion a few of the major problems facing secondary education today have been raised.

Any person conversant with the secondary program could identify many more. These problems must be solved if secondary education is to serve its rightful function in society. Time is pressing. Increases in enrolment are already in evidence in our high schools. Demands for increases in operating and building budgets are becoming a necessity. Leadership in secondary education must accept the challenge of providing a curriculum to meet the needs of all youth if the tremendous expenditures necessary for secondary education in the future are to be justified.

SOCIAL PERCEPTION AND TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

NORMAN E. GRONLUND

University of Illinois



TEACHERS DIFFER greatly in their ability to perceive the social acceptability of their students. This finding was made in an earlier study,¹ but it could not be determined from the data whether those with most accurate social perception were more effective teachers.

The present study is an attempt to determine the relation between accuracy of social perception and teaching effectiveness. "Accuracy of social perception" is defined as the degree to which an individual's judgments of the social acceptability of others agree with their actual social acceptability, as measured by a sociometric test. Teaching effectiveness was determined by the use of supervisors' judgments.

Although numerous studies² have attempted to isolate the correlates of teaching efficiency, little attention has

been given to the accuracy of teachers' perceptions as a relevant variable. Since a teacher's behavior in the classroom is guided to a large extent by how he perceives the needs and behavior of his students, we should expect to find a positive relation between the accuracy of his perceptions and his teaching effectiveness. It is not expected that this relation will be perfect, or even necessarily close, since accurate perceptions serve only as a necessary prerequisite to appropriate behavior on the part of the teacher. A teacher may be able to perceive the classroom situation accurately but lack the needed knowledge, skill, or desire to react appropriately. However, the hypothesis here is that, given the necessary training to make the correct responses, the appropriateness of a teacher's reactions to classroom situations is dependent upon the accuracy of his perceptions. Thus accuracy of perception might be considered a basic, although not sufficient, condition for efficient teaching.

The present study is limited since a single dimension of the teacher's ability is isolated and considered in relation to teaching effectiveness. A fur-

¹ Norman E. Gronlund, *The Accuracy of Teachers' Judgments concerning the Sociometric Status of Sixth-Grade Pupils*. Sociometry Monographs No. 25. New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1951. Pp. 62.

² Arvil S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency: A Summary of Investigations," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XVI (June, 1948), 203-83.

ther limitation is the fact that only one aspect of teacher perception is analyzed, namely, social perception. It is expected that this form of perception is more closely related to teaching effectiveness when the total development of students is stressed, and less closely related to teaching effectiveness when imparting subject matter is the main concern. The first part of the preceding statement is supported by Gage and Suci,³ who found a relation between the accuracy of teachers' social perceptions and their effectiveness with students. (Even though the present study is limited in the respects mentioned and therefore should be considered exploratory, it is felt that it can provide valuable leads for the further investigation of this neglected aspect of teaching effectiveness.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

Population.—The population consisted of 104 college students in four educational-psychology classes. All were Senior students enrolled in the professional semester of the College of Education, University of Illinois. During the professional semester, students attend classes on the campus for the first six weeks and then spend six weeks of full-time student teaching in the public schools under the supervision of College of Education personnel. Upon completion of their student teaching, they return to the campus

for four additional weeks of course work. The students participating in this study were in training for teaching at the secondary-school level. The four classes in which the data were collected ranged in size from twenty-one to thirty students.

Collecting data on social perception.—The data on accuracy of social perception were collected by the present investigator, in each of the four educational-psychology classes, one week after the students had returned from student teaching. Before the data were collected, it was necessary to make certain that each student was acquainted with all his classmates. This was done by providing each student with an alphabetical list of the names of the students in class and asking him to check the names of those students he did not know. When this was completed, each student introduced himself to the class. The check sheet was used to facilitate the process of recognition. During the introductions the students were told to give special attention to the class members whose names they had checked. In all four classes the students knew the majority of their classmates before the introductions. Consequently it was felt that the procedure was sufficient to enable the students to attach names to the remaining class members whom they had not been able to identify originally but with whom they had had ample opportunity to interact in the previous seven weeks of class discussion.

After the introductory procedures in each class, a measure of sociometric

³N. L. Gage and George Suci, "Social Perception and Teacher-Pupil Relationships," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XL (March, 1951), 144-52.

status was obtained. The student teachers were given another alphabetical list of the names of all their classmates and asked to indicate the five students they would choose first as future teaching companions (placing a 1 after their names) and the five students they would choose last as future teaching companions (placing a 5 after their names). It was explained that by "future teaching companion" was meant a person who would teach in the same school and with whom the student would have considerable professional and social contact. It was emphasized that the responses would be confidential and would in no way influence any student's mark or status in the class or the college. The directions, plus the rapport established with the class, appeared to elicit valid responses. All the students approached the task seriously and responded according to directions.

Upon completion of the sociometric rating, the students in each class were asked to judge the relative acceptability of each class member as a teaching companion. This was accomplished by giving each student another alphabetical list of all the students in the class and asking each to rank all members of the class, including himself, in terms of the relative number of choices he thought they would receive as a teaching companion. Instructions were to place a 1 after the name of the student who, in the respondent's opinion, would receive the largest number of choices as teaching companion, a 30 (in the class of thirty) after the name

of the student who would receive the smallest number of choices, a 2 after the one he thought would receive the next largest number of choices, a 29 after the one he thought would receive the next smallest, and so on until each student was ranked. As indicated in these directions, the students' judgments were made from the extremes of the distribution toward the center. It was felt that this procedure would enable the students to rank the class members more easily and more efficiently.

Collecting judgments of teaching effectiveness.—Teaching effectiveness of the subjects in the study was determined by means of supervisors' pooled judgments. Upon the completion of student teaching, the supervisors in each area of preparation met in a group and selected the top and bottom 15 per cent of all their students in terms of total effectiveness in student teaching. The top 15 per cent were characterized as students who did a meritorious job in student teaching and displayed great teaching potential. The bottom 15 per cent were characterized as marginal student teachers who might be successful if given special help on the job but about whose potential teaching ability there were definite reservations. In addition to selecting the top and bottom 15 per cent, the groups of supervisors indicated why they selected each student for that particular category.

Although it is realized that there are numerous shortcomings in using supervisors' judgments as a criterion of

teaching effectiveness, it is believed that the procedure used reduced them to a minimum. First, the judgments were based on classroom observations of the students' teaching, on conferences with the student teachers, and on information obtained from the school in which the students did their teaching. Second, the judgments were pooled judgments of several supervisors, reducing the halo effect to a minimum. Third, the judgments re-

cases, less systematic. Consequently supervisors' judgments are realistic in terms of the probable success these students will experience as teachers in the public schools.

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND RESULTS

Accuracy of social perception.—The sociometric test was scored by giving a +1 for each first choice as teaching companion and a -1 for each last choice as teaching companion. The sociometric status of the subjects in each class was then obtained by totaling the number of choices each student received. The above procedure made it possible to rank the students in each class in the order of their relative acceptability as teaching companions. Accuracy of social perception was then determined by correlating the rank order of the class members obtained from the sociometric rating with each individual's rank-order prediction of his classmates' relative acceptability as teaching companions.

The medians and ranges of these accuracy scores are presented by class in Table 1. It will be noted that there was a wide range in individual accuracy of social perception within each class. It appears that some students had highly inaccurate perceptions of the relative acceptability of their classmates as teaching companions, while others had a relatively high degree of accuracy in this regard.

The differences in median accuracy scores between classes can be accounted for largely by the varying social structure from class to class. For ex-

TABLE 1

MEDIAN AND RANGE OF CORRELATIONS BETWEEN RANKS ON SOCIOMETRIC TESTS GIVEN BY STUDENTS IN FOUR EDUCATIONAL-PSYCHOLOGY CLASSES AND STUDENTS' PREDICTIONS OF CLASSMATES' ACCEPTABILITY AS TEACHING COMPANIONS

Class	Number of Students	Median	Range
A.	21	.48	.16 to .81
B.	30	.32	-.10 to .70
C.	27	.49	.13 to .77
D.	26	.40	.05 to .68

quired discrimination between the extremes of the distribution only, where greater agreement is expected. Fourth, the groups of supervisors were asked to justify their selections for the top and bottom categories.

All these precautions should contribute to increased validity of the supervisors' judgments. In defense of the use of this criterion of teaching effectiveness, it could be said that the future teaching performance of these students will be evaluated on the basis of administrators' judgments which will be similar but, in most

ample, Class B was a closely knit group with a restricted range of social-status scores. It has been found that this type of social structure makes it more difficult to perceive the relative acceptability of the group members.⁴ In order to compensate for these differences between classes, the means and the standard deviations were computed for the total population and were used to convert the accuracy scores to T scores. These provided individual accuracy scores which were comparable from class to class.

Before relating accuracy of social perception to teaching effectiveness, it appeared desirable to determine whether there was a significant difference between men and women in accuracy of social perception. This was prompted by the fact that the relative number of men and women varied from class to class. Should there be a significant difference in accuracy between the sexes, the final results would be contaminated by this variable.

The median accuracy scores on social perception are presented by sex, for each class, in Table 2. Although these median accuracy scores were slightly higher for women than they were for men in all four classes, these differences were not statistically significant. Consequently there appeared to be no difference between men and women in the accuracy of their per-

ceptions concerning the relative acceptability of their classmates as teaching companions.

Accuracy of social perception and teaching effectiveness.—It will be recalled that teaching effectiveness was determined by means of supervisors' pooled judgments. They selected the best student teachers (top 15 per cent) and the poorest student teachers (bottom 15 per cent) from the subjects

TABLE 2
MEDIAN T SCORES OF MEN AND WOMEN STUDENTS IN FOUR EDUCATIONAL-PSYCHOLOGY CLASSES ON ACCURACY OF SOCIAL PERCEPTION

CLASS	MEN		WOMEN	
	Number of Students	Median Score	Number of Students	Median Score
A.....	13	49.5	8	50.5
B.....	12	49.5	18	52.5
C.....	17	49.5	10	53.5
D.....	17	47.5	9	51.5
Total.	59	49.0	45	52.0

participating in this study. Due to absences in the four classes, data on the accuracy of social perception were gathered for only thirteen of the students in each category.

The mean T score on accuracy of social perception was 53.6 for the best thirteen student teachers, with a range of 41–62. For the poorest thirteen student teachers the mean T score was 46.9, with a range of 29–66. It will be noted that the best student teachers had a higher mean accuracy score and a more restricted range of scores than the poorest student teach-

⁴ Norman E. Gronlund, "The Relative Ability of Home-Room Teachers and Special-Subject Teachers To Judge the Social Acceptability of Preadolescent Pupils," *Journal of Educational Research* [to be published].

ers. However, an application of the *t* test indicated that this difference between means was significant only at the 10 per cent level. There are numerous possible explanations for this apparent lack of relation between accuracy of social perception and teaching effectiveness.

First, it is possible that social perception is not a general ability and therefore that accuracy of social perception in a peer group (such as a college class) does not assure accuracy of social perception in a non-peer group (such as the student group being taught). Whether social perception is a general ability is now under investigation.

Second, the criteria of teaching effectiveness may be contaminated by numerous uncontrolled variables. In selecting the best and the poorest student teachers, some supervisors may have put major emphasis on the ability to impart subject matter, while others stressed the ability to understand students and assist them with their total development. In the former case it would be expected that accuracy of social perception would play a minor role, if any, in effective teaching. In the latter instance the accuracy of social perception should be an important aspect of teaching effectiveness. For example, it would be difficult for the teacher to be effective in assisting his students toward better social adjustment if he were unable to perceive their present state of adjustment.

Third, the range of teaching effec-

tiveness may have been too restricted. Owing to the selection policies of the College of Education at the University of Illinois, this study was concerned not with good and poor student teachers but rather with the best and the poorest of a highly selected group. A significant relation between teaching effectiveness and accuracy of social perception may appear with a wider range of teaching effectiveness.

Fourth, the tools and methods used in this study may be too simple and crude to measure such a complex ability as social perception. Thus, although there was a wide range of individual accuracy scores in all classes tested, these scores may be contaminated by a number of unpredictable variables.

It is, of course, entirely possible that there is no relation between accuracy of social perception and teaching effectiveness. However, the complexity of the task makes it imperative that this hypothesis be tested further, with a wider range of teaching ability and greater control of variables, before such a lack of relationship is accepted.

Sociometric status and teaching effectiveness.—Since an analysis of the data provided an index of the sociometric status of the subjects in this study, it was decided to compare the best and the poorest student teachers with regard to this variable. It will be recalled that the sociometric test was scored by giving a +1 for each first choice as teaching companion and a -1 for each last choice as teaching companion. The sociometric status of each student was then obtained by

totaling the number of choices received. Thus sociometric status reflects the degree to which a student is accepted by his classmates as teaching companion.

The mean of the sociometric status scores for the best thirteen student teachers was $+2.8$, with a range from -5 to $+9$. For the poorest thirteen student teachers the mean score was -2.5 , with a range from -14 to $+6$. The mean scores indicate a general tendency for the best student teachers to be accepted as teaching companions and the poorest student teachers to be rejected as teaching companions. The difference between these means was significant at the 3 per cent level. Although there was considerable overlap between groups in the range of scores, only two student teachers in the best group received more rejection choices than acceptance choices, while there were eight of the poorest student teachers in this category. It appears safe to conclude that there is a rela-

tion between sociometric status and teaching effectiveness, with the best student teachers being most acceptable as teaching companions.

In interpreting the results, it should be remembered that the students were not aware of the teaching ability of other students in the class when they made their choices of teaching companions. These choices were based entirely on whether they preferred to teach in the same school system with certain students. Consequently they were responding to the personality characteristics that contribute to social acceptability among peers. It is, of course, possible that these same personality characteristics influenced the supervisors' judgments when selecting the best and the poorest student teachers. However, it seems most probable that the personality characteristics which contribute to desirability as a teaching companion also contribute to effectiveness in classroom teaching.

EDDIE, YOU WILL COME WITH ME TO THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE

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TAKING A STUDENT to the principal for discipline is a time-honored practice of teachers. How is it regarded by students? An attempt to see the school and its personnel as students see them was made by means of a projective-technique¹ study. One hundred and fifty Seniors from five large high schools located in three sections of Maryland were the subjects. The students "projected" a series of eleven sketches. The directions explained that each sketch was a short "story" to which the student was to dash off his response, writing freely as the situation unfolded in his memory or his imagination. Three minutes were allowed for the reading of each story and the writing of the response.

One of the sketches was designed to elicit student expression on the pupil-teacher and the pupil-principal relationships and on the roles of pupil, teacher, and principal in a disciplinary situation. It read:

¹ The author favors the term "thought-sampling" introduced by David C. McClelland in *The Achievement Motive*, p. 321. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953. However, "projective technique" is used here since it is more widely known.

For several days, Eddie has been deliberately interfering with progress in the classroom, the cafeteria, the library, and the corridors by making unnecessary noise and confusion. His teacher has tried in many ways to get his co-operation. At last, she takes him to the principal's office.

How does each person feel?

What happened in the office?

The protocols reveal (1) the students' ideas of the causes of the misbehavior and their attitudes toward the wrongdoer and toward his interview with the principal, (2) their concepts of the feelings and the roles of the players in the little drama, and (3) their expectations of the type of treatment accorded the errant Eddie and its effect.

The significance of the situation and its high emotional content are illustrated by two complete student responses:

Eddie feels that the teacher is unreasonable and that he is being picked on. The teacher feels that there must be some reason for Eddie's behavior and would like to help him. The principal is interested in helping not only Eddie but the entire school. They discuss the problem—try to discover the reasons Eddie has for feeling that his behavior is right.

The student probably hated the teacher forever after being taken to the principal. The teacher felt hurt because no doubt she had the boy's interest at heart. The principal felt bad over the conflict between the teacher and the student. Hard feelings between teachers and students cause the student to lose something from his school life.

REASONS FOR EDDIE'S MISCONDUCT

Various reasons for Eddie's conduct were given by forty-four students. Two-fifths (18) of the students attributed the difficulty to Eddie's need for

The following statements selected from those made by the students illustrate the reasons given:

Eddie is in desperate need of attention. Since he has an inferiority complex, he covers it up by being a show-off.

Eddie probably suffered from lack of attention and affection at home.

Eddie feels he is being picked on.

He is bored stiff with every phase of school and will do anything to break the monotony.

Eddie probably feels as though he is a big tough guy like he sees in the movies.

TABLE 1
EMOTIONAL REACTIONS ASCRIBED TO EDDIE

REACTION	BOYS (56)		GIRLS (94)		TOTAL (150)	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Resentment, belligerence.....	17	30	26	28	43	29
Regret, shame.....	10	18	12	13	22	15
Fear, nervousness.....	6	11	5	5	11	7
"Don't-care" attitude.....	3	5	5	5	8	5
Pleasure.....	2	4	6	6	8	5
Surprise ("He was just having fun").....			3	3	3	2

attention, and one-fourth (11) thought that dislike of school or of teacher was the cause. One-fifth (9) believed that the trouble originated in the home. One Senior thought that Eddie had a personal problem. In contrast to these serious causes were the opinions of five students who believed that the unco-operative pupil was merely thoughtless or was having fun ("a joke to see how much he could get by with"). The great diversity of motives attributed to Eddie would require of the principal a high degree of perspicacity in diagnosis and remediation.

Eddie feels young, and gay, and devilish.

Something is evidently bothering Eddie or he wouldn't *act sol*

EMOTIONAL REACTIONS OF THE PUPIL

The students ascribed to Eddie a variety of emotions, ranging from belligerence through fear and surprise to pleasure (see Table 1). In their responses the boys surpassed the girls in the per cent believing that Eddie's emotions were resentment, shame, regret, and fear. More girls than boys failed to describe an emotion. Perhaps the boys felt more empathy with the pupil in this situation than did the

girls. The emotions that Eddie was said to experience are exemplified in selections from students' statements:

When it comes down to it, Eddie feels badly about the situation.

The boy is scared stiff.

Eddie thinks this the best part. He has over-run the teacher and has hopes of doing the same to the principal.

Eddie feels this will make him better liked by his classmates.

MENTAL AND EMOTIONAL REACTIONS OF THE TEACHER

Seventy-four students described the teacher's reaction to the situation. It was evident that all students felt the teacher regarded the referral of Eddie to the principal as an extreme measure. Thirty-five students considered that her reaction would be one of regret for the necessity of sending Eddie to the principal; twenty-three described her reaction as anger or frustration; eight believed she would feel a sense of failure; and eight, a sense of frustration.

That most of the students supported the teacher in her action of taking the unco-operative student to the principal is evident in the typical responses of the students:

The teacher wants to eradicate the trouble and to have a smooth-working class.

The teacher feels she can work it out better with the principal's help.

The teacher would like to handle Eddie herself, but she has not the time.

The teacher feels disappointed and perhaps feels that she has in some way failed her job.

Three students thought the difficulty was one of accumulated irrita-

tion on the teacher's part, but two girls thought that teachers are too long-suffering. Some students expressed the deterrent motive—that the teacher's purpose was to stop such conduct in Eddie and to prevent other students from following suit.

Four-fifths of the students felt sympathy with the teacher and approved of her course of action, giving statements such as these:

The students feel annoyed by Eddie's unnecessary noises and are glad when the teacher finally takes him to the principal's office.

Each person feels more or less against Eddie.

They can't concentrate on their work because of his constant disturbance.

That the visit to the principal's office was of great significance to the students was evident in their responses. Twenty-two of them stated that it was the final disciplinary resource of the teacher ("the last resource," "nothing left to do").

REACTIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL

That the principal, too, was emotionally involved in the situation was the opinion of many students. Their conceptions of his reactions were highly varied, ranging from deep concern to indifference:

He talked to Eddie as if the boy were his own son.

The principal is angry that Eddie has not had better home training.

The teacher tells the story to the principal who is unhappy over the affair.

The principal doesn't know what to do with him.

The principal is indifferent.

APPEALS FOR BETTER CONDUCT

The students reported numerous appeals made by the principal in this disciplinary situation. Two-thirds of the appeals were social in basis, citing the need for responsible conduct in school and consideration of others. The bases of the principal's appeal to the student, as stated by one-fifth of the pupils, are shown in Table 2. The specific appeals which the principal

TABLE 2

BASIS OF THE APPEALS SAID TO HAVE
BEEN USED BY THE PRINCIPAL

	Frequency of Mention
Responsible conduct in school.....	12
Consideration for other people.....	8
Importance of working "and getting the most out of school".....	3
Abiding by the rules of the school....	3
Questioning concerning home stand- ards for school conduct.....	3
Personal concern.....	1
Danger of "flunking".....	1
Total.....	31

was said to have made to Eddie would seem to indicate that many students regard him as a counselor. Edmonson, Roemer, and Bacon³ list three types of discipline used in the schools: (1) absolute authority, (2) appeal to personal interests, and (3) control through group responsibility. It is evident that the students participating in this study recognized these means of control.

The boy's parents were mentioned by thirteen students. Six students said Eddie was warned that, if his miscon-

duct continued, his parents would be notified or called in; five thought that the parents were notified; and two that the parents were called and were present at the conference.

The descriptions of the principal as he acted in his position of authority, as a counselor, and in other roles made it evident that the students realized the complexity of his functions and the manner in which he discharged the duties of his office.

TREATMENT AND EFFECT

The students had conflicting ideas of the type of treatment Eddie would receive from the principal and its outcome (Table 3). Sixty-five of the 150 students expected the pupil who was on the warpath to be given guidance treatment, which would seek the cause and remediation for the cause of his conduct. A few more of the students thought the problem would be met with punishment or threats. A larger per cent of girls than of boys anticipated guidance treatment rather than punishment.

Two-thirds of the sixty-three students who made a prognosis expected good results from the conference. The girls were more optimistic than the boys: three-fourths of the girls anticipated improvement, but the boys were about equally divided in looking for improved conduct and for no improvement in conduct as a result of the conference.

Six students thought that only temporary improvement would result from the principal's disciplinary ac-

³ J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*, p. 222. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

tion. Twenty students believed that no improvement would result from the conference. Several of the students felt that pupil-teacher and pupil-principal antagonisms would be the result. That the situation was one of the pupil versus teacher and principal was the opinion of two students. This opinion is in accordance with Becker's research³ on the status of the teacher

principal to act in a guidance capacity described his motives and courses of action, some with considerable insight. The following explanation is made by Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon:

Since many of the problems of discipline are created by lack of social training of individual pupils, the solution of disciplinary problems often becomes a matter of social

TABLE 3
TYPE OF TREATMENT SAID TO HAVE BEEN GIVEN THE UNCO-OPERATIVE
PUPIL BY THE PRINCIPAL AND ITS EFFECT

TREATMENT AND RESULT	BOYS (56)		GIRLS (94)		TOTAL (150)	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Guidance.....	18	32	47	50	65	43
Punitive.....	30	53	42	45	72	48
Threats of suspension or expulsion.....					(14)	
Suspension or expulsion.....					(8)	
Scolding.....					(13)	
Orders to behave.....					(11)	
Punishment (unspecified).....					(7)	
Threats of punishment.....					(7)	
Deprivation of privileges.....					(6)	
Detention.....					(5)	
Corporal punishment.....					(1)	
Results in better conduct.....	12	21	31	33	43	29
Results in no better conduct.....	11	20	9	10	20	13

in the authoritarian system of the school. He concluded that the teacher, striving to maintain what he considers his legitimate sphere of authority in the face of possible challenge by others, expects the principal to help him in building defenses. The 43 per cent of the students who expected the

guidance rather than of law enforcement and managerial control.

Every official relation between the school principal and his pupils, both as individuals and in groups, is considered to have potential guidance possibilities, if appropriately utilized.⁴

Typical responses of students who expect the principal to use the guidance method are these:

³ Howard S. Becker, "The Teacher in the Authority System of the Public School," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXVII (November, 1953), 140.

⁴ Paul B. Jacobson, William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon, *Duties of School Principals*, p. 136. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.

The principal is trying to understand Eddie.

He wants to find out why Eddie has been acting as he has and how he can help Eddie reach a normal relation with the social organization of the school.

The principal tries to get at the bottom of Eddie's problems to see if he needs help. They all sit down and try to find the answer to Eddie's problem.

That the principal would act in an authoritarian role was the belief of 48 per cent of the students. Punishment and threat of punishment were expected, the action to be directed toward correcting the misbehavior without reference to the cause. Representative student responses are:

The principal, being the highest authority and very much respected, seems to be successful.

The principal puts on a stern face, gives Eddie a long and thorough bawling-out.

COMMENTS AND IMPLICATIONS

The protocols of 150 high-school Seniors describing the conference between the school principal and the unco-operative student who was referred to him by the teacher reveal the great significance of the action.

Two-thirds of the students who made a prediction anticipated improved conduct and personal relationships between the errant pupil and the student group and between the teacher

and pupil, but one-third expected no improvement or even deterioration. In the opinion of twenty-two students, sending the pupil to the principal was the teacher's last resort. Almost omnipotent wisdom and skill in diagnosis and remediation would be required of the principal in the situation as projected by the students because of the high degree of emotion and ego involvement of pupil and teacher (and, in many cases, of the principal himself); the varied causes named for the misconduct, ranging from juvenile high spirits to maladjustment with the school and personality disorder; and the regard for the principal by teacher and pupil as the highest authority of the school.

The great variety of motives ascribed for the misconduct reveal the necessity of diagnosis to ascertain the basic cause before prescribing treatment. The prognoses of the effect of the conference indicate the superiority of guidance over authoritarian methods.

Heartening, indeed, is the students' sentiment on the side of law and order. Four-fifths of them condemned the miscreant and supported the teacher and principal in their requirement of proper conduct.

THE ROLE OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS IN LATIN AMERICA

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AMERICAN SCHOOLS, employing administrative practices and teaching techniques common to the schools of the United States, may be found in each of the Latin American countries. These schools, numbering more than two hundred, have been established by United States companies doing business in Latin America, by church organizations as missionary enterprises, or by groups of United States citizens living in a Latin American community. From his experiences as an administrator of such schools in three Latin American countries and from the results of a research study recently completed, the writer presents the following description of the place of these schools in Latin America.

One purpose of American Schools in Latin America is to provide an educational program comparable to that to be found at home for North American children temporarily living abroad. Another objective is to make it possible for Latin American pupils to remain in their own country while acquiring a knowledge of, and ability to use, the English language as prepara-

tion for college entrance in the United States or for a vocation at home which requires bilingual ability. Of equal or greater importance is the contribution that these bilingual American Schools make toward a better understanding between the peoples of the United States and of the Latin American countries by enabling each to acquire a knowledge of the language, history, and customs of the other.

Practices in American Schools of Latin America vary from country to country and even from school to school within a country. The variations may be attributed largely to one or more of these factors: the motive of the sponsoring organization of the school, the national educational program of the country, the restrictive legislation found in national laws that affect schools, and the socioeconomic group to be served by the school.

SPONSORING ORGANIZATIONS

American Schools in Latin America may be divided into three classes according to their sources of support, with allowance for shifting from one class to another as conditions affecting

the schools are altered. These three classes are church-affiliated schools, company-supported schools, and independent co-operative schools sometimes referred to as "community schools." Administrative practices, purposes, curriculums, personnel, and patrons differ widely in these schools.

Church-affiliated schools.—Most of the American Schools in Latin America are associated with some church organization. With the exception of a few Catholic-sponsored schools in Peru, Chile, and Bolivia, the church-affiliated American Schools in Latin America are sponsored by Protestant groups. These schools offer the official educational program of the country, with additions to the curriculums to carry out the purposes of the school.

One of the main objectives is to win converts for the supporting church. In the classroom extra emphasis is placed on English as a language, and the class is taught by North Americans. The school day is lengthened to provide extra time for Bible study and the teaching of English.

The greater number of teachers in these church-affiliated schools are nationals, but the administrators are usually North Americans. The pupils are predominantly nationals. Perhaps because of the personnel employed, the desire for official recognition of the school, and public reaction to the school program, the organization of church-affiliated schools is similar to the plan of organization followed by national schools.

The company-sponsored schools.—

United States companies doing business in Latin America have sponsored schools for the benefit of English-speaking children of technicians and administrators employed by the company. Such schools vary in number and in enrolment as company business increases or decreases. A school grows in size as business expands and additional workers are employed. When plant disease or economic conditions cause a reduction in production and a transfer of employees, the company-sponsored school is reduced in size or is even eliminated.

Company-sponsored schools provide curriculums and follow an organizational pattern similar to that followed by schools in the United States. They are often located in isolated areas and, compared with other American Schools, have small enrolments. They offer little scholastic work on the secondary level. One exception is the Lago Transport Company School on the island of Aruba, twenty miles off the coast of Venezuela. It has an enrolment of six hundred pupils and offers a twelve-year program beyond kindergarten, which is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Independent co-operative schools.—The co-operative type of American School in Latin America, sponsored by both Latin Americans and North Americans, is organized as a corporation or foundation for the purpose of maintaining a nonprofit, nonsectarian, coeducational, and bilingual American

School. The organization and the curriculums are syntheses of the practices of the national schools and of the schools of the United States. Both English and the national language are used as media of instruction. Administrative personnel of the schools are North Americans. The percentage of both pupils and teachers from the United States in a co-operative school is greater than the percentage found in the church-affiliated schools but smaller than the percentage found in the company-sponsored schools.

This kind of school appeals to North Americans because it provides an opportunity for their children to obtain schooling which includes the fundamental subjects taught in the homeland. It also provides an opportunity for these children to understand and appreciate the language and customs of the people about them. This kind of school appeals to the Latin American who desires a school which is independent of religious teaching (as contrasted with the missionary teaching of the church-affiliated school), which offers experience in use of the English language and United States customs, and which provides adequate preparation for entering colleges and universities in an English-speaking country. The independent co-operative schools have received grants-in-aid from the Inter-American Schools Service for the purpose of employing teachers and school administrators from the United States.¹

INFLUENCE OF NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

In each of the Latin American countries, control of education is vested in the national government, usually under a ministry of education. The plans of studies, or curriculums, vary from country to country, but the general pattern is the same. Secondary-school curriculums in Bolivia place emphasis on natural sciences; in Ecuador the emphasis is on social sciences; in Costa Rica it is on foreign languages. In Costa Rica, as in approximately half of the Latin American countries, the secondary-school program is completed in five years. Elective subjects in national schools are almost unknown except as an area of specialization in the final year. Secondary schools following the curriculums prescribed by the national ministry of education are recognized as baccalaureate colleges granting such titles as Bachelor of Modern Humanities, Bachelor of Classic Humanities, and Bachelor of Science in Education.

Promotion is by scholastic year rather than by subjects and requires a passing mark in all subjects. Thus if a pupil has failed to make a passing mark in chemistry during the second year, he must repeat second-year mathematics and all other subjects in the second-year curriculum although he may have earned high marks in mathematics and other subjects of

¹William E. Dunn, "Serving American-sponsored Schools in Latin America," *World Affairs*, CXVII (Summer, 1954), 47.

that year's work. This, no doubt, contributes to the high degree of nonpromotion which occurs in secondary schools. A 1952 report on the Liceo de Costa Rica, a national school for boys, indicates that fewer than 38 per cent of first-year pupils were promoted at the end of the school year. Less than 52 per cent of the total school enrolment had passing marks at the close of the school term.²

It is a custom in Latin America for schools, both elementary and secondary, to prescribe a uniform color and style of clothing to be worn by pupils. In cities where more than one school exists, pupils of a given school may be identified by their apparel. For instance, the girls enrolled in the Colegio Superior de Señoritas in San José, Costa Rica, wear dark blue skirts, blouses with blue and white stripes, black stockings, and black shoes. Pupils of secondary schools are classified according to the year in which they are enrolled. A number "5" on the sleeve of the uniform indicates that the pupil is enrolled in the fifth year of the secondary school.

American Schools in Latin America deviate somewhat from the customs and practices of the national schools. As they do so, however, administrative problems increase with respect to the transfer of pupils to and from other schools and with regard to the

interpretation of school policy to the community.

In those Latin American countries where the official secondary-school program may be completed in five years, the inclusion of an additional year of study beyond that of the official plan of studies does not easily win acceptance. Students reluctantly choose a school which delays graduation one year. Some American Schools, rather than attempt to add one year of study to the program, offer curriculums which include the official plan of studies and increase the length of the school day to provide for added subjects.

With few exceptions, American Schools in Latin America tend to use the same school calendar as is used by other schools of the community. The calendar varies from nation to nation and seldom coincides with school calendars of the United States. The opening date for schools in Guatemala City is early in January; for San José it is in March; for Rio de Janeiro it is in July; for São Paulo it is in August; and for Buenos Aires it is in March. In Quito, Ecuador, the opening date comes early in October, but in the port city of Guayaquil of the same country the school year begins the first week in May. Variation in opening and closing dates of the school year presents a problem for students transferring from one country to another and for graduates who desire to go elsewhere to enter college or university.

In American Schools the turn-over

² Correspondence from the chief of staff of the Ministry of Education of Costa Rica, quoting from the unpublished 1952 report of the Director of the Liceo de Costa Rica.

in student personnel is rapid. A recent study of eight co-operative American Schools offering college-preparatory courses showed that more than 22 per cent of the secondary-school enrolment withdrew in 1952. Sixty-six per cent of these withdrawing pupils did so to enter school in the United States or Canada.³

American Schools in Latin America tend to operate on a five-day-a-week schedule, while the national schools have a schedule that includes Saturday-morning classes with one afternoon off during the week. This difference creates a problem in the scheduling of classes in countries like Ecuador, where compulsory military training classes are conducted by the government on this off afternoon for boys in the fourth, fifth, and sixth years of secondary school. National boys enrolled in an American School in Ecuador cannot be scheduled for Wednesday afternoon classes if they are enrolled in one of the last three years of a secondary school.

RESTRICTIONS IMPOSED BY LAW

In each of the Latin-American countries, minimum educational programs are prescribed by laws which place limitations on the organizational patterns and administrative practices of American Schools. The national school code specifies the subjects to be taught, the scholastic year in which they are to be offered, and the number

of times a week classes shall meet. This is illustrated by one writer's comments on the secondary-school curriculum of Nicaragua:

As in other Latin-American republics, the curriculum of the secondary school proper in Nicaragua is prescribed by law and all the schools, both public and private, are required to follow it. In general, the five-year course of studies closely resembles that of academic secondary schools in the other countries of Central and South America. All subjects are required for all students—thirty-three hours a week throughout the year. Much more history and geography is required than in United States schools, and there is no choosing among the numerous mathematics and science courses; each student takes all the courses provided, regardless of individual interests or abilities. Psychology, philosophy, sociology, political economy, and cosmography, which in the United States are generally regarded as college subjects, are secondary-school studies in Nicaragua.⁴

The school codes of some Latin American countries, including Guatemala, Panama, Venezuela, Bolivia, and Peru, place restrictions on the use of foreign languages as media of instruction and on the nationality of those teaching certain subjects, such as civics, history, and geography. Labor codes written to protect laborers from exploitation in Latin American countries also apply to school personnel. These labor codes make it difficult to discharge an unsatisfactory teacher without financial loss to the school. When discharged without cause, a

³ Dean Fitzgerald, "American Schools in Latin America," p. 93. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Tulsa, 1954.

⁴ Cameron D. Ebaugh, *Education in Nicaragua*, p. 19. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1947, No. 6.

teacher in Mexico who has taught three months or more is entitled to an additional month's severance pay for each year of service rendered to the school. Seldom has incompetency been established as a cause for dismissal.

Labor codes similar to that of Mexico are also in force in Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, and Venezuela. Foreigners working in Mexico are required to have a working permit, which must be renewed annually for five years. At the end of five years a permanent permit may be issued. These permits involve expense and delay, yet no one may be employed on a temporary basis without a permit. This requirement adds to the difficulty of making school personnel changes on short notice.

Most Latin American countries include religious instruction as a regular part of the curriculum, but some prohibit it. Before 1912, religious instruction was required in Bolivia. Then it was prohibited in public schools. A Supreme Decree in 1942 again required both public and private schools to offer instruction in the Catholic religion. Church-sponsored schools of other religious beliefs have since been permitted to substitute moral instruction for Catholic religious instruction. Article III of the 1917 constitution of the Mexican United States as rewritten in 1934 states in Section 1:

All religious corporations, the ministers of cults, the organizations which preferably or exclusively carry on educational activities, and the associations or societies bound directly or indirectly to the propaganda of a

religious creed shall in no way interfere in primary, secondary, or normal schools, nor shall they be permitted to assist them financially.

Legislative restrictions relative to foreign schools in several of the Latin American countries can be traced to the activities in which the German schools participated before the Second World War. In some countries where legal restrictions have been an obstacle to the organization of an American School, the obstacle has been overcome by organizing the school as an experimental or laboratory school under a national charter granting the school special privileges. An illustration of this occurred in Guatemala, when a presidential decree was issued in November, 1948, authorizing the American School of Guatemala to function for ten years as a laboratory school providing special courses of study, examination regulations, and other regulations considered pertinent to its operation. Another presidential decree in 1952 authorized the same school to employ up to 50 per cent of foreign teaching personnel—an exception to the national labor code, which permits a maximum of 20 per cent of foreign labor.

SOCIOECONOMIC INFLUENCE

A fourth factor affecting administration of American Schools in Latin America is the influence of the socioeconomic group served by the school. As previously pointed out, the company-sponsored school obtains its enrolment from families of technicians

and administrators from the United States who live in isolated areas. Such families plan an educational program for their children that is to be completed in the United States and consequently demand a school organization comparable to that found in the United States. This necessitates a greater percentage of teachers trained in the United States. The school is the hub around which turns the wheel of educational and social activities of an isolated North American colony in a foreign land. Its services are comparable to those of a consolidated school in a middle western village of the United States.

The design of the educational program provided by a church-affiliated American School varies according to the socioeconomic level of the people served by the school. Some church-affiliated schools are designed to provide better educational opportunities for children of families in the lower economic levels; others, to provide terminal courses with some vocational training for students representing families of the middle class; and a few, to prepare students for college entrance and for professional careers. The manner in which church-affiliated American Schools have been influenced by socioeconomic factors, and vice versa, has been well summarized by Davis:

Mission schools differ among themselves in the special motivation behind them and the social and economic group to which they appeal. Some are designed especially for the governing class; others are philanthropic and humanitarian in their inspiration, aim-

ing at providing greater educational opportunity for the underprivileged. Several Protestant mission boards and at least one Catholic order maintain schools of both kinds. In general it may be said that the larger and more important mission schools have appealed mainly to the middle class. In countries where no middle class has existed, the opportunities provided by these schools have contributed, along with other factors, to the growth of such a class. In every major city of the continent may be found competent young people who will volunteer the information that it was the mission school which gave them their opportunity in life, an opportunity which in its briefest statement has been, simply, to pass into the middle class with its relatively greater possibilities for self-development and for self-respect.⁵

The comparatively high matriculation and tuition fees of independent co-operative American Schools tend to restrict such schools to patrons who are above the low income level. These patrons, both Latin Americans and North Americans, plan a college career for their children. For this reason a college-preparatory course is offered by all co-operative American Schools maintaining a secondary division. These schools are located in the capital and chief port cities of Latin America, where the use of the English language is more common. In such cities the social and economic importance of being able to speak and understand the English language creates interest in the bilingual program of the American Schools. Families owning stock in

⁵ Roy Tasco Davis, "American Private Schools in Latin America," *Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (May, 1945), 51-52.

the co-operatives are given preference in matriculation and by reduction in fees. Waiting lists often make pre-enrolment necessary. A statement from a report on Lincoln School, a co-operative American School in Costa Rica, indicates the nature of the curriculum provided and the types of pupils who attend such schools:

Lincoln School offers a complete program from kindergarten through the twelfth grade inclusive. The general program is similar to that of the college-preparatory schools of the States with additional emphasis on Latin-American history, customs, and geography. Spanish as a subject is begun in the third grade and is continued through high school.

The school is attended by children who are especially interested in learning English

language and customs. They represent various nationalities and families of varied occupations. The school patron list includes ambassadors, doctors, engineers, lawyers, missionaries, and the presidential family.⁶

While the factors described in this article have caused variations in the educational programs offered by different schools, they have also helped to demonstrate the adaptability of the program in Latin America to meet the educational needs of the 100,000 pupils served annually by American Schools scattered throughout the twenty republics of Latin America.

⁶ Dean T. Fitzgerald, "Co-operative Education in Costa Rica," *School and Society*, LXX (July, 1949), 55.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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THE following bibliography covers the period from January, 1954, to December, 1954. The references to printed materials were furnished by J. W. Getzels. The references to films were provided by Kenneth D. Norberg.

GENERAL AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSIONS¹

500. BLAIR, GLENN MYERS; JONES, R. STEWART; and SIMPSON, RAY H. *Educational Psychology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1954. Pp. xviii+602.

A textbook in educational psychology from the developmental point of view. Its plan is (1) to present a longitudinal account of the child as he progresses toward maturity; (2) to show the forces that influence and produce change in the child's learning and adjustment; (3) to describe how the methods of psychology can be used to evaluate the educational program; and (4) to discuss the psychological factors influencing the professional growth and mental health of the teacher.

501. CARMICHAEL, LEONARD (editor). *Manual of Child Psychology*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1954 (revised). Pp. x+1296.

¹ See also Item 555 (*Guidance, Counseling, and Pupil Personnel*) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1954, issue of the *School Review*.

Provides an accurate and comprehensive picture of the varied research and theory in the psychology of human development. Each chapter is devoted to a separate aspect of child psychology and is written by a recognized authority.

502. CRONBACH, LEE J. *Educational Psychology*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. xxviii+628.

Draws upon material from child study, social psychology, testing, and mental hygiene in order to clarify the operation of the learning process in the school situation. Takes up psychology and school problems; readiness and its development; acquiring ideas, attitudes, and skills; planning, motivation, and evaluation; and emotional learning.

503. ESTES, WILLIAM K., and OTHERS. *Modern Learning Theory*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. Pp. xvi+380.

Provides an intensive treatment of five prominent (and probably dominant) learning theories, namely, those of Clark L. Hull, Edward C. Tolman, Burrhus F. Skinner, Kurt Lewin, and Edwin R. Guthrie.

504. LINDZEY, GARDNER (editor). *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Vols. I and II. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. x+1226.

Contains authoritative articles and summaries of research in the major areas of social psychology. The first volume is devoted to theory and methods; the second, to special fields and applications.

505. LISS, EDWARD (chairman); ROSENTHAL, HELEN; RIVLIN, HARRY N.; HARRIS, ALBERT J.; and ROSWELL FLORENCE G. "Contemporary Concepts of Learning: Round Table, 1954," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIV (October, 1954), 767-88.

A symposium of five complementary papers: "The Genesis, Evolution and Dysfunction of Learning and Remedial Measures," "The Need for the Orthopsychiatric Team in Remedial Teaching," "The Classroom Teacher and the Child's Learning," "Egoistic Learning," and "Observations on Causation and Treatment of Learning Disabilities." Attempts to bridge the gap between learning theory and analytic theory as they apply to the classroom situation.

506. MARTIN, WILLIAM E., and STENDLER, CELIA BURNS (editors). *Readings in Child Development*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. xii+514.

A sourcebook of significant papers in child development, including primary theoretical, clinical, and experimental studies. Deals with the hereditary factors of individual growth, the social and cultural milieu of development, the process of socialization, and the socializing agents which influence each child's development in a unique way.

507. MILLARD, CECIL V. *School and Child*. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State College Press, 1954. Pp. xvi+222.

Illustrates the principles and generalizations of child development by studying in detail a single child throughout his elementary-school career. Among the data collected by frequent systematic observation, tests, and interview were general school background, physical growth and health, personal and social development, academic learnings, and home and family environment.

508. MOWRER, O. HOBART. "Learning Theory: Historical Review and Re-interpretation," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIV (Winter, 1954), 37-58.

Attempts to put contemporary developments in learning theory into historical perspective and to indicate the probable direction of future work in the field. Reviews the parallel development of theoretical formulations emphasizing conditioning (or sign learning) and trial and error (or solution learning). Notes that the major effort up to now has been to found a complete psychology of learning upon one or another of these principles, concludes that it is not a question of either-or but of *both*, and outlines a system of thought including both principles and presents the implications for several important psychological problems.

509. PEARSON, GERALD H. J. *Psychoanalysis and the Education of the Child*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. x+358.

Discusses the contributions of psychoanalysis and psychoanalytic research to an understanding of the learning process, the education of the child, and the development of the moral sense. Points out the common problems confronting the psychoanalyst and the educator and calls for more application of psychoanalytic knowledge to the field of education.

510. PECK, HARRIS B. (chairman); KAISER, CLARA A.; ZLATCHIN, PHILIP; SCHERDLINGER, SAUL; and GREENWOOD, EDWARD D. "The Group in Education, Group Work and Psychotherapy: Round Table, 1953," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIV (January, 1954), 128-52.

Discusses the role of group work in education, social work, and psychotherapy. The effectiveness of teachers and guidance workers is seen as involving an understanding of the individual's emotional relation to the groups of which he is a part. Maintains that the school group, with its natural and planned subgroupings, can provide the educator with new tools to sharpen this under-

standing and that a wide variety of group experiences, in and out of the classroom, offers the multiple means by which the individual can be helped to learn and to grow.

511. REMMERS, H. H., RYDEN, EINAR R., and MORGAN, CLELLAND L. *Introduction to Educational Psychology*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1954. Pp. x+436.

Conceives of education as "training for adjustment to life's personal, social, and economic problems" and emphasizes the nature of this adjustment, the extent to which it can be identified, and how it is influenced by institutional factors, home conditions, community influences, and school learning.

512. ROSENSTIEL, ANNETTE. "Educational Anthropology: A New Approach to Cultural Analysis," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIV (Winter, 1954), 28-36.

Decries the failure in communication between anthropology and education. Points to the desirability of integrating the two approaches dealing with the study of individual and group behavior change and proposes a new interdisciplinary area of research and teaching to be called "educational anthropology." A series of graduate-level courses to form a core curriculum for the area is outlined.

513. SHANNON, J. R. "Experiments in Education: A New Pattern and Frequency of Types," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVIII (October, 1954), 81-93.

Shows that traditional classifications of types of experimental procedure in education are outmoded; proposes a new pattern of categories based on a survey of a thousand experiments reported in the educational literature from 1909 to 1952. Concludes that "research scholars in education would do well to follow the new pattern in their experimenting, and thinking or teaching about experimenting, until future surveys show that it too is outmoded."

514. STONE, CALVIN P. (editor), and MC-NEMAR, QUINN (associate editor). *An-*

nual Review of Psychology. Stanford, California: Annual Reviews, Inc., 1954. Pp. x+448.

The fifth annual volume presenting "coherent digests" of important contributions in the field of psychology for the preceding year. Among the areas covered are child psychology, learning, individual differences, personality, social psychology and group process, and educational psychology.

515. THELEN, HERBERT A. *Dynamics of Groups at Work*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954. Pp. x+380.

A basic textbook providing theoretical formulations, practical principles, and concrete examples in the area of group work. Six specific fields are handled in detail: citizen participation, classroom teaching, in-service professional training, administration and management, human-relations training, and public meetings.

516. THORPE, LOUIS P., and SCHMULLER, ALLEN M. *Contemporary Theories of Learning*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1954. Pp. viii+480.

Explains the most important theories of learning and shows the relevance of each to the educational process. Considers connectionist, conditioning, field, and functional theories and points out that, in spite of conflicts between these theories, they have a common ground upon which to base an intelligible pattern of classroom procedure.

517. WILES, KIMBALL (chairman), and OTHERS. "The Educational Program: Adolescence," *Review of Educational Research*, XXIV (February, 1954), 1-104.

Eleven papers, summarizing research in the field, attempt to (1) determine what is known of the nature of the adolescent and his society, (2) ascertain what school experiences are being provided for adolescents and the effect of these experiences, and (3) examine the structure of the social institutions through which society makes an organized effort to educate youth. Further needed research is suggested, and comprehensive bibliographies are included.

MENTAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS

518. BRITTON, JOSEPH H. "Influence of Social Class upon Performance on the Draw-a-Man Test," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLV (January, 1954), 44-51.

Reports a study which found significant relations between social class and scores on a number of intelligence tests but no such relation on the Goodenough Draw-a-Man test. Suggests that optimum utilization of human resources in all socioeconomic groups is an obligation and that the search for measures of intelligence which resolve social-class differentials must be continued.

519. COLEMAN, WILLIAM, and CURETON, EDWARD E. "Intelligence and Achievement: The 'Jangle Fallacy' Again," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 347-51.

Finds that a good test of school achievement in reading and arithmetic measures essentially the same combination of functions as a typical group intelligence test, the overlap being in the order of 95 per cent. Suggests that, if one is content to measure merely verbal and arithmetical intelligence, the best available test is likely to be a valid achievement test of vocabulary, reading, and arithmetic.

520. FATTU, NICHOLAS A.; KAPOs, ERVIN; and MECH, EDMUND V. "Problem Solving," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, L, First Half (August, 1954), 141-85.

Studies the relations between organismic variables, such as sex, age, anxiety, and practice, and specific response dimensions on a number of problem-solving tasks. No general sex differences were found in response dimensions. Practice, per se, does not produce systematic gain. There is an inverse relation between anxiety and correct solutions, but none between anxiety and rigidity.

521. HAGGARD, ERNEST A. "Social-Status and Intelligence," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, XLIX, Second Half (May, 1954), 141-86.

Investigates the influence of a number of factors, such as social status, practice, motivation, form of test, and manner of presentation, on intelligence-test performance. Concludes that present intelligence tests penalize lower-class children. Suggests that evaluations based on various experiential and noncognitive factors must be developed before it is possible to obtain more adequate measures of intellectual functioning.

522. MOSEL, JAMES N. "The General Educational Development Tests (High School Level) as a Predictor of Educational Level and Mental Ability," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVIII (October, 1954), 129-34.

Concludes that there is little evidence for the validity of the General Educational Development Tests as measures of educational development apart from general mental ability.

523. TORGERSON, THEODORE L.; ADAMS, GEORGIA SACHS; and HARRIS, ALBERT J. (general editor). *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary School Teacher*. New York: Dryden Press, Inc., 1954. Pp. xiv+490.

Discusses the evaluative process, the study of individuals, improvement of instruction, and administrative and supervisory aspects of measurement and evaluation. Takes as the central theme the need to base classroom procedures on an understanding of the whole child.

524. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. (chairman), and OTHERS. "Symposium: Future Progress in Educational and Psychological Measurement," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 245-82.

Discusses the present status and problems of educational and psychological measurement and attempts to predict future progress in the field. Considers school evaluation programs, measurement of mental abilities, measurement of achievement, the use of structured inventories of interests and personal qualities, projective tech-

niques, and problems of communication in the field of measurement.

525. WILSON, ROBERT C.; GUILFORD, J. P.; CHRISTENSEN, PAUL R.; and LEWIS, DONALD J. "A Factor-Analytic Study of Creative-Thinking Abilities," *Psychometrika*, XIX (December, 1954), 297-311.

The latest study in a series attempting to isolate and define abilities in the domain of creative thinking, particularly as it applies to science, engineering, and invention. To the nine factors previously identified, five new factors were added: originality, redefinition, adaptive flexibility, spontaneous flexibility, and sensitivity to problems.

INSTRUCTION AND LEARNING

526. BOWER, ELI M., CAINE, FRANCES A., WILLENBERG, ERNEST P., TAYLOR, EDGAR, JR., CLAPPER, CASSIE C., and MARTIN, MARY FRANCES. "The Education of the Mentally Retarded Child in a Democratic Society: A Panel Discussion," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LIX (July, 1954), 35-47.

Discusses various aspects of the education of the mentally retarded with special reference to their place in the public schools.

527. CARLSON, V. R. "Individual Differences in the Recall of Word-Association-Test Words," *Journal of Personality*, XXIII (September, 1954), 77-87.

Examines the general hypothesis that memory is affected by the emotional implications of the material to be remembered. The findings suggest that memory for word-association items is not due entirely to the characteristics of the stimulus words but is determined in part by personality factors.

528. GUETZKOW, HAROLD; KELLY, E. LOWELL; and McKEACHIE, W. J. "An Experimental Comparison of Recitation, Discussion, and Tutorial Methods in College Teaching," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLV (April, 1954) 193-207.

Reports a study that found no differences in educational outcomes between the recitation, discussion, and tutorial methods. The few statistical differences that did appear tended to favor the recitation-drill method. Indicates that experimental manipulation of the instructional procedure affects only a small segment of the students' learning process and suggests that more fundamental research is needed upon the quasi-isolated subsystems within the total educational process.

529. HAYES, ALBERT McHARG (guest editor), and OTHERS. "The Discussion Method in Teaching: a Symposium," *Journal of General Education*, VIII (October, 1954), 1-71.

The entire issue is devoted to "discussion as a means of teaching," with special reference to the problem of general education.

530. KEPHART, NEWELL C., and FLOYD, WILLIAM. "Classroom Environment and Pupil Welfare," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLV (January, 1954), 52-59.

Attempts to evaluate the effect upon fourth- and fifth-grade children of a school year spent in an experimental classroom of the type recommended by Harmon and known as the "co-ordinated classroom." Concludes that at the end of the year the "experimental" children, as compared with a group of "control" children, were superior in school achievement, posture, and freedom from extraneous movements or nervous habits.

531. LEVINSON, DANIEL J. "The Intergroup Relations Workshop: Its Psychological Aims and Effects," *Journal of Psychology*, XXXVIII (July, 1954), 103-26.

The twofold purpose of this report is the practical and technological one of assessing the value of an educational method and the theoretical one of understanding the processes by which a particular situation produces various psychological effects. Accordingly, the author describes the aims, procedures, and empirical findings of a workshop in intergroup relations and dis-

cusses the nature of the changes observed. Concludes that the workshop, although not a panacea, does help.

532. McKEACHIE, W. J. "Student-centered versus Instructor-centered Instruction," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLV (March, 1954), 143-50.

Examines present stereotypes regarding student-centered and instructor-centered teaching; outlines the major differences between the two methods; surveys a group of selected research studies in this area; and attempts to re-define the general problem in more meaningful terms.

533. McKEACHIE, WILBERT J. "Individual Conformity to Attitudes of Classroom Groups," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLIX (April, 1954), 282-89.

Studies the relations of the individual's attitudes to group norms in a number of experimentally varied classroom situations. Among the findings are: (1) classes taught by a group-centered technique created greater member-liking for the group than leader-centered classes, and (2) a group-decision technique resulted in less congruence but greater conformity than did a lecture.

534. SMITH, DONALD E. P. "Applicational Transfer and Inhibition," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLV (March, 1954), 169-74.

Attempts to test the hypothesis that limited ability to apply principles in problem-solving is a function of the extent to which words have been inhibited or blocked. With greater than normal latency in a controlled word-association test as the criterion of inhibition, superior appliers were found to have significantly shorter reaction time and fewer disturbed responses than inferior appliers.

535. SMITH, JOSEPH G. "Influence of Failure, Expressed Hostility, and Stimulus Characteristics on Verbal Learning and Recognition," *Journal of Personality*, XXII (June, 1954), 475-93.

Studies the effects of hostility, nature of stimuli, and experimentally induced failure on paired-associate-learning and visual-recognition thresholds. Among the major expected relationships confirmed are that failure resulted in an impairment of learning which persisted throughout the learning task and that the effect of failure on the differential learning of hostile and neutral material differed for hostile and nonhostile subjects. Several conclusions from other studies in the area of "selective learning" were not confirmed.

536. TAFT, RONALD. "Selective Recall and Memory Distortion of Favorable and Unfavorable Material," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLIX (January, 1954), 23-28.

Reports results of an experiment which showed that ego involvement leads to superiority in immediate recall of both favorable and unfavorable material and to superiority in delayed recall of favorable material. Compares these results with those of similar experiments.

537. TALBOT, MIRA, and HENSON, ISABELLE. "Pupils Psychologically Absent from School," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIV (April, 1954), 381-90.

Discusses the role of emotional conflict in the school failure of five adolescent boys and shows that each boy was protecting himself against an anticipated impending disaster by the defensive mechanism of ceasing to learn. Certain forces were seen as common to all cases: loss of the father, pressure by the mother for academic success, fear that academic success would bring upon them the fate suffered by their fathers. As a result of relatively short social-work treatment, the internal conflict was minimized and learning improved.

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ROLE²

538. FERGUSON, ROBERT G. "Some Developmental Factors in Childhood Aggres-

² See also Item 106 (Stendler) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1955, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

sion," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVIII (September, 1954), 13-27.

By means of the Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study, investigates changes in the expression of aggression in children of different age levels. (1) In general, outward aggression decreases, while acceptance of blame and conformity to popular reactions increases, from age four through thirteen. (2) In specific deviant cases, defective super-ego development seems related to unstable home environment.

539. FESTINGER, LEON, and HU HE, HERMAN A. "An Experimental Investigation of the Effect of Unstable Interpersonal Relations in a Group," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLIX (October, 1954), 513-22.

A cross-cultural study, done in Holland and the United States, of the effects of the stability of interpersonal relations within a group on accuracy in the perception of social preferences. The findings were the same for both countries and indicate that, if persons in a group feel that the members of the group whom they like best dislike each other, then they will tend to be uncertain and unstable about their own interpersonal relations to the group.

540. FOSHAY, ARTHUR W., WANN, KENNETH D., and ASSOCIATES. *Children's Social Values*. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. Pp. xii+324.

Defines action research as "research undertaken at the action level to improve practice" and reports the procedures, findings, and practical implications of an action-research project on the nature and change of children's social attitudes and values in the school setting.

541. JANIS, IRVING L. "Personality Correlates of Susceptibility to Persuasion," *Journal of Personality*, XXII (June, 1954), 504-18.

Reports on the relationship between personality factors and persuadability. Group data supported the following two hypothe-

ses drawn from clinical case material: (1) Persons with low self-esteem tend to be more readily influenced than others. (2) Persons with acute symptoms of neurotic anxiety tend to be more resistant to persuasion than others.

542. MURPHY, ROBERT C., JR., and YOUNG, WILLIAM H., JR. "The Defense Mechanisms of a Six-Year-Old: Workshop, 1953," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIV (January, 1954), 185-202.

Presents the case history of a gifted and creative six-year-old with an unusually serious speech defect. The paper centers on the defense mechanisms used by the child against anxiety which had as its focal point the oedipal constellation. Since the speech defect was a means of avoiding too close contact with people, the report also involves the study of nonverbal communication.

543. NORTHWAY, MARY L. "A Plan for Sociometric Studies in a Longitudinal Program of Research in Child Development," *Sociometry*, XVII (August, 1954), 272-81.

Describes a procedure by which a child's social development may be appraised in terms of his sociometric qualities over a number of years. A cumulative record of each child may be kept in such a way that periodic sociometric data may readily be related to other known aspects of the child.

544. PAULSEN, ALMA A., and KRUGMAN, JUDITH I. "Personality Development in the Middle Years of Childhood," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIV (April, 1954), 336-50.

Concludes, on the basis of text and interview material for thirty children over a ten-year period, that the development of personality is inwardly determined, affected by (but not conditioned upon) environmental factors. The basic developmental sequences seem general for all subjects despite such factors as traumatic incidents, unfavorable family environments, and cultural and economic deprivations.

The study also offers evidence on the prognostic validity of the Rorschach method for children as young as age six.

545. PIHLBLAD, C. T., and GREGORY, C. L. "Selective Aspects of Migration among Missouri High School Graduates," *American Sociological Review*, XIX (June, 1954), 314-24.

Presents data to support the hypothesis that migration of rural youth toward urban areas tends to be selective of the more intelligent and of those with superior school aptitudes. Educational implications of this are indicated.

546. SHRODTBECK, FRED L. "Special Issue on Small Group Research," *American Sociological Review*, XIX (December, 1954), 651-819.

Presents fifteen papers emphasizing the importance of understanding the nature and consequences of face-to-face interaction in social-science theory and practice.

547. SUTTENFIELD, VIRGINIA. "School Phobia: A Study of Five Cases," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIV (April, 1954), 368-80.

Reports case studies of five children whose immediate problem was a school phobia. Discusses the etiology of the phobia and methods of treatment.

FILMS³

The following list of selected instructional motion pictures is restricted to recent 16mm films. All list-

³ See also Item 582 (*Psychology for Living*) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1954, issue of the *School Review*.

ings are sound films unless otherwise indicated.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY FILM LIBRARY, NEW YORK

548. *Maternal Deprivation in Young Children*. 30 minutes, black and white. 1953.

Illustrates the effects of separation from maternal care, and later progress under therapy.

549. *A Two-Year Old Goes to Hospital*. 30 minutes, black and white. 1954.

Documents the behavior of a two-year old during eight days in a hospital ward.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CINEMA REGISTER, PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE, STATE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA

550. *Mechanical Interest and Ability in a Home-Raised Chimpanzee*. Silent, black and white. 1954.

Part 1. 17 minutes. Shows the development of manual dexterity in a chimpanzee from age nine months to six years.

Part 2. 18 minutes. Demonstrates the development of the chimpanzee's behavior in responses to water from age nine months to six years and in responses to fire from age three to five years.

Part 3. 15 minutes. Records the chimpanzee's responses to a number of objects, such as the telephone, phonograph, mirror, toys, blocks, lights, and light switches.

Part 4. 17 minutes. Documents the results of training the chimpanzee in such skills as dressing self, eating with spoon, using toilet chair, opening bottles and other containers, using faucet, pouring coffee, and solving certain types of manipulative problems.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HAROLD W. BERNARD, *Psychology of Learning and Teaching*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. xii+436. \$5.00.

On the reviewer's desk are six textbooks in educational psychology, all bearing the copyright date 1954. Four of these are completely new, and two are extensive revisions. Such a number of publications in one year indicates a high degree of vitality in this field and an apparent conviction that better books can be written. Some of these books are different chiefly in the selection and organization of content, while others show more variation in method of treating the subject than in innovations of subject matter. Bernard's *Psychology of Learning and Teaching* falls in the latter class. It presents no significant additions to the usual content of educational psychology.

The book is organized into four main subdivisions. Part I includes the usual introductory chapter outlining the field of educational psychology and then presents a chapter on techniques of study and one on teacher personality as it affects learning. The content of these two chapters seems to the reviewer to be quite appropriately placed in the beginning section of the book. Part II, which deals with learning, is introduced with the sentence, "Learning is a growth process" (p. 59). While it is not uncommon to so consider it, a more precise definition of "learning" and "growth" would clarify matters for

the student. The process of learning and the process of growth are better characterized by their differences than by their similarities, and the operations of teachers are quite different in respect to growth and to learning. There is little that is new in Part II, and some of it, for example, the eight pages given to connectionism, receives the kind of treatment that was current as far back as 1925.

Part III deals with the nature of the learner, covering such topics as personality, intelligence, individual differences, and learning characteristics of childhood and adolescence. Part IV contains seven chapters relating to the teaching-learning situation. Here one finds treatments of emotions, habits, social settings, language, and mental hygiene.

The principal characteristic of the volume is its method of presenting the content. Throughout the book, psychological principles are first treated, and then practical applications are discussed. Each chapter is summarized in parallel columns under these two categories. The treatment of principles is verbal and authoritative. The learner is given no glimpse of how principles are derived. The book is conspicuous in the lack of quantitative evidence to support the principles which are stated. The method of treatment may be illustrated from quotations from the summary of any chapter. The following example is from chapter x, "Personality and Its Development."

<i>Psychological Principle</i>	<i>Practical Application</i>
Heredity determines the limits for development.	The job of teachers is to help the child realize a maximum part of his inherited potential.
Glands and physique are integral parts of the total personality. . . .	Teachers should be on the watch for physical deviations that would complicate the process of adjustment. . . .
There are limits to the extent to which personality may develop.	Avoid pushing, prompting, and forcing a child to develop at an unnatural rate [p. 200].

This method of proceeding from verbally stated principles to applications is an "innovation" when compared with most textbooks of the present generation, which make copious use of quantitative data from which principles are inductively developed. However, there is a disturbing similarity in method between the present book and the earlier pedagogical textbooks that were written without benefit of data.

The book contains a two-page appendix on the meaning of correlation, a glossary of some 125 technical terms, and a supplementary bibliography of 299 references. It is not clear how this bibliography is to be used by an introductory class or by what logic the references could have been selected.

In the opinion of the reviewer, *Psychology of Learning and Teaching* is not likely to arouse the intellectual curiosity of the student but, rather, will tend to substitute verbalisms for understandings.

G. T. BUSWELL

University of California (Berkeley)



FRED C. AYER, *Fundamentals of Instructional Supervision*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1954. Pp. xvi+524. \$4.50.

The book under review is a basic textbook designed for use in the professional preparation of instructional supervisors. It should be of real value in a university course which emphasizes the guiding principles of instructional leadership.

In the first two chapters the author discusses briefly but precisely the history and growth of supervision, the philosophy of supervision, and the guiding principles of supervision. The balance of the book is devoted to a discussion of ten guiding principles of instructional supervision. These ten principles are developed as a philosophy for the evaluation, planning, and leadership of instructional supervision. The rise of these principles is recounted, and the biological,

psychological, and sociological facts upon which they are based are discussed. Following the discussion of each principle there is a chapter devoted to an analysis of the practices and techniques related to the specific principle.

The book is valuable because it is comprehensive and also because the author draws upon long experience to present his opinions relative to the topics under discussion. For example, authoritative supervision is frequently criticized and characterized not only as being autocratic, dictatorial, and coercive but as generally ineffective. The author admits such criticism is often valid but states:

Many known ways of doing things are sufficiently valid to justify preplanning, and . . . a certain amount of authoritative responsibility should be placed in the hands of qualified leaders to insure a standard program of instruction. The best ways of American education merit a substantial amount of authoritative leadership. How to secure a practical balance between official control of, and democratic participation in, preplanned supervision is a problem of major importance to American educators [p. 17].

In similar manner, the author discusses creative supervision, organismic supervision, democratic supervision, and scientific supervision. He believes that supervision and administration are correlative functions of education; that they have overlapping but distinctive theories and techniques.

The greatest value of the book lies in the manner in which the many principles of growth, learning, and instruction that contribute to effective supervision of instruction have been combined into ten basic principles. These principles are classified under democratic supervision (leadership, co-operation, consideration), creative supervision (creativity, integration, community orientation), and scientific supervision (planning, flexibility, objectivity, evaluation). The discussion of the practices and techniques relative to each principle and the chart describing the characteristics and needs of pupils by age groups will be of lasting value to the reader.

Fundamentals of Instructional Supervision will prove to be a valuable reference book for teachers in training at both undergraduate and graduate levels, for individuals preparing for the assumption of supervisory and administrative responsibilities, and for administrative and supervisory officers in school systems. The book is well documented. The frequent references to both the theoretical and practical contributions to literature supply suggestions for reference reading beyond the carefully selected bibliographies appended to each chapter. The particular attention paid to other worth-while references, combined with the presence of meaningful diagrams and charts, adds to the general value of this publication for all individuals concerned with the purposes, principles, practices, and techniques of instructional supervision.

Public Schools
Cincinnati, Ohio

ROBERT P. CURRY



JEAN D. GRAMBS, *Education in a Transition Community*. Intergroup Education Pamphlet No. 9. New York 16: National Conference of Christians and Jews, [n.d.]. Pp. 124. \$0.25.

Among the many publications on intergroup education which have appeared in recent years, the nine pamphlets which have been published by the National Conference of Christians and Jews are distinguished for their sound footing in the principles of American democracy and their practical approach to problems which too often remain theoretical. The pamphlet under review, Number 9 in the series, gives practical suggestions, gleaned from the experience of many communities, as to how a school system can take steps to integrate groups which have formerly been kept apart. The urgency of such measures has been with us for many years but has been accentuated by recent decisions of the Supreme Court.

A "transition community" is one in which large numbers of newcomers, either in new housing projects or in older parts of town where the population is changing, have forced a modification of the old ways of doing things to the point where problems and tensions either have developed or are likely to develop. Some communities have waited until serious troubles have forced a change of policy. In other communities, forward-looking leadership has anticipated the problems and has adopted policies to meet the new situation.

The author assumes throughout the discussion that a community with such a problem is intending to change from a segregated to an integrated situation. How to do this is never an easy question because, as Grambs says, "Transition from one style of operation to another style of operation is seldom a pleasant experience" (p. 5). The author explains:

This pamphlet is designed to help school administrators, teachers, parents, and community leaders to choose wise policies—on the basis of the experience of others—when a school system is under the legal obligation to integrate all students and teachers into a single school system [p. 7].

This purpose is well achieved, within the limits of the brief form of the pamphlet. First, there is a thoughtful look at some of the barriers to change in the American social pattern. This is followed by a brief study of group differences, with special reference to the Negro and the Spanish-speaking groups.

Next under consideration are questions of school-board policy in regard to matters of integration and attendance areas. Other important factors considered are administrative planning with teachers, work with the community, and planning with and for children. The entire discussion is based upon the best recent studies and reports, such as Harry S. Ashmore's book, *The Negro and the Schools* (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina, 1954), which is a report on the study made by a group of forty-five

scholars in the field of biracial education in the United States.

The third and final part of the pamphlet presents five case studies of communities in which definite and successful action has been taken to integrate pupils in school systems which previously have been segregated. The entire approach is that of achieving a true community school, in which all members of the community work together to accomplish the integration of diverse elements.

This is no theoretical discussion; this is living and breathing experience. The changes in these communities have been full of difficulties, and only through wisdom and careful planning have leaders been able to make the principles of rightness prevail. Not one of the case studies is complete because, as in any social movement, there are resulting problems which often are as great as the ones already solved.

All these struggles toward integration may seem primitive a few years hence, when integration has been substantially achieved, but just now the problems are urgent and perplexing for school and community leaders in hundreds of communities. Many of the techniques of successful leadership are reported in this pamphlet. Even though the problems are not completely solved, these techniques will still stand out as successful efforts in social engineering in a democratic society. Not only this pamphlet, but the others in this intergroup education series, should be made a part of the knowledge and experience of school and community leaders wherever the problems of integration are still unsolved.

FRANK S. ALBRIGHT

Public Schools
Gary, Indiana

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HOWARD F. FEHR, WALTER H. CARNAHAN,
and MAX BEBERMAN, *Algebra: Its Key
Concepts and Fundamental Principles:*
Course 1, pp. xii+484, \$3.00; *Course 2*,

pp. xii+502, \$3.00. Boston 16: D. C.
Heath & Co., 1955.

Teaching procedures emphasizing student discovery of principles have long been advocated by leading authorities in mathematics education, and their inclusion in textbooks is long overdue. Both books under review, and especially the first, present groups of exercises designed to stimulate student discovery of certain basic algebraic concepts, and it is hoped that these pioneering efforts will encourage the publishing of other algebra textbooks based almost entirely on such teaching procedures. The content of the two books includes many other excellent features which have hitherto not been included to any great extent in algebra textbooks.

Strategically interspersed throughout the first book, and to some extent throughout the second, are exercises derived from single concrete settings. These settings are taken from a wider variety of fields of knowledge than is usually found in textbooks. For instance, there are formulas relating temperature to number of cricket chirps, temperature to the speed of an ant, velocity of wind to air resistance, cost of automobile operation to speed of travel, and stopping distance of an automobile to its speed. Included also are formulas used in cooking, business, and geometry. In both books, well-chosen, eye-catching pictures help students visualize the exercise settings.

A more comprehensive history of algebra is given than is presented in most textbooks dealing with comparable topics. Many fine qualities of recent algebra textbooks are also found in these books, namely, developmental explanation of concepts, principles, and techniques; strong emphasis on the language of algebra; an excellent format, which makes an artful use of color; a large amount of graded practice materials; cumulative reviews and tests; and exercises designed for the purpose of maintaining arithmetic understandings and skills.

The scope and sequence of the first book is largely that of current algebra textbooks.

Writers of textbooks in elementary algebra should do more experimenting in this area. Ratio, proportion, and trigonometry, because of their obvious utilitarian value and their relative lack of difficulty, should be introduced much earlier in the course, before intensive treatment of factoring and algebraic fractions. The elementary textbook under review does include a fair treatment of graphing, but graphs could have been introduced at the beginning of the course along with formulas. The graphs could then serve, from the very beginning, as a visual aid to enrich student understanding.

An outstanding feature of the second book is the manner in which a review of elementary algebra is brought in as it is needed. Even at the beginning of the book, when students are a bit rusty in their knowledge of algebra, new ideas are being introduced. For example, the beginning chapter deals with the real-number system as a logical system of ideas. Since the first book deals with the logic of algebra in only an incidental fashion, the logical approach is new to the student. Yet, at the same time, this chapter is of such a nature as to allow students time to refresh their acquaintance with the concepts of elementary algebra. Throughout the book the emphasis is on the logical presentation of subject matter, and therefore the authors felt (as they indicate in the Preface) that there should be less frequent use of discovery exercises. The reviewer, however, believes that the advanced algebra course should use discovery procedures even more than the elementary course, for students who study advanced high-school mathematics are those who will be expected to do creative work in applying mathematics or in developing the subject itself. It seems that it should be possible to use the discovery approach and still bring out the logical aspects of algebra.

Another outstanding feature of the advanced book is its scope. Elementary ideas of analytical geometry and calculus are interwoven with the usual topics found in the second course in algebra.

Both textbooks have a serious lack;

neither book deals with statistics, either in an explicit or an implicit fashion. However, both books are certainly of a caliber that deserves careful consideration by those who are responsible for the selection of textbooks in algebra.

OSCAR F. SCHAAF

*Eugene High School
Eugene, Oregon*



HELEN IRENE DRIVER, *Multiple Counseling . . . A Small-Group Discussion Method for Personal Growth*. Madison 4, Wisconsin: Monona Publications (803 Moygara Road), 1954. Pp. 280. \$5.00.

Multiple Counseling . . . A Small-Group Discussion Method for Personal Growth is designed to help teachers and clinicians in their work with groups. It includes descriptions of techniques that can be used and sample protocols. The author's goal appears to be to help others use a technique that she has found effective.

The author has set for herself a rather difficult task. The area of group techniques still is in its infancy, and many concepts need to be clarified. Unfortunately this book is filled with statements which suggest a lack of complete understanding of the theoretical bases and philosophical assumptions underlying the devices described. The book is organized in cookbook fashion, suggesting the words to use and the techniques which ought to be employed. Unlike many of her peers, the author does not hesitate to set down rules governing group leadership and organization. She rarely presents the basis for these rules or supporting evidence from research, other than her own.

When a reviewer finds it necessary to present a negative report on a book, he owes it to his readers to cite objective evidence to support his evaluation. The following excerpts from Driver's book are therefore presented. Because of space limitations it is necessary to quote them out of context.

On page 27 the following comment is made:

Thus a guidance worker or personal counselor cannot activate a group psychotherapy project, but . . . can direct group projects concerned with personal growth, human relations, or vocational guidance.

The author presents the idea that dealing with intellectual ideas is allowable, but involving the person in self-revelation leads to therapy, which is taboo. Where counseling ends and psychotherapy begins is never made clear. In similar fashion, there is no clear definition of how one can assist a person with a vocational problem without having the client assess himself and his needs. The author's semantic confusion in this area is clearly illustrated in the following quotation:

Since personal maladjustment often accompanied occupational uncertainty, the counseling was much deeper than so-called vocational guidance [p. 37].

Since this book is designed to help one serve in a leadership role, it would appear to be appropriate that considerable space be spent on how a leader can assess his effect on a group. Judging from the author's section on "The Group Leader as a Counselor," a leader can at will employ nondirective or directive attitudes. The idea that a leader's behavior may reflect his basic values and needs is rarely explored. It seems to be assumed that the leader can function in any framework merely by using the tools of that philosophy. If tools made a philosophy, then the eclectic goal sought by the author would be realistic. Unfortunately, however, for the counselor merely to reflect feeling does not make him nondirective. Similarly, a leader who believes he is shifting from a nondirec-

tive to a directive approach cannot ever have been truly nondirective. When a leader reserves the right to shift control of the group whenever the group is not going where he believes it ought to be heading, he is indicating that he is permissive as long as the group sees things his way. This certainly is the antithesis of the nondirective philosophy.

Although the book frequently suggests that the group leader have individual counseling sessions with group members, there is almost no exploration of the effect of this dual role on the client and the group. If some of the psychoanalytic overtones in Driver's approach were to be explored in terms of the leader's dual role, one would certainly anticipate a complete discussion of the effect on a group when a leader (parent surrogate) appears to be favoring one member (child) by outside attention. The resulting hostility (sibling rivalry) has frequently been reported by workers with social groups and by earlier writers concerned with group process. The existence of this problem and means of dealing with it are of major importance, but Driver's exploration leaves much to be added.

In her Preface Driver states:

Teachers who have guidance duties in their schools may use the book as a counseling textbook: group guidance projects which follow the techniques described herein will keep within the framework of *true* [italics mine] counseling [p. 11].

The author could have performed a valuable service if she had reported her experiences and techniques so that others might try them. When, however, she attempted to use her approach as the answer for all people, she set a goal that she had little chance of achieving.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

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- CHANDLER, B. J., and PETTY, PAUL V. *Personnel Management in School Administration*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1955. Pp. x+598.
- Educating the Children of Los Angeles County: A Course of Study for Elementary Schools*. Prepared by the Staff of the Division of Elementary Education with the cooperation of members of other divisions, Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools. Los Angeles 12, California: Office of County Superintendent of Schools, 1955. Pp. xxviii+432. \$3.50.
- GARRISON, KARL C., and GRAY, J. STANLEY. *Educational Psychology*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1955. Pp. xxii+506. \$5.00.
- HYMES, JAMES L., JR. *Behavior and Misbehavior: A Teacher's Guide to Action*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. Pp. viii+140.
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- JOYNSON, D. CYRIL. *Physical Education for Children: A Handbook of Objective Activities*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1954. Pp. 216. \$4.75.
- MCKIM, MARGARET G. *Guiding Growth in Reading in the Modern Elementary School*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1955. Pp. xx+528. \$5.25.
- MAYER, MILTON. *They Thought They Were Free: The Germans 1933-45*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1955. Pp. xii+346. \$4.75.
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- WICKENS, DELOS D., and MEYER, DONALD R. *Psychology*, pp. x+542, \$5.25; *Teacher's Manual* by HARRY P. BAHRICK, pp. 70. New York 19: Dryden Press, Inc., 1955.

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- CASNER, MABEL B., GABRIEL, RALPH H., with an introduction by CARL SANDBURG. *The Story of American Democracy*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1955 (third edition). Pp. xiv+720. \$3.96.
- Concise Dictionary of American Literature*. Edited by ROBERT FULTON RICHARDS. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1955. Pp. viii+254. \$5.00.
- EDWARDS, LAUTON. *Making Things of Plastic*. Peoria 3, Illinois: Chas. A. Bennett Co., 1954. Pp. 192. \$3.75.
- FUNK, WILFRED. *Six Weeks to Words of Power*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 1955. Pp. x+294. \$0.35.
- GILMARTIN, JOHN G. *Gilmartin's Word Study*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955 (fifth edition). Pp. xii+194. \$1.84.
- HARK, MILDRED, and MCQUEEN, NOEL. *Junior Plays for All Occasions: A Collection of Royalty-free, One-act Plays for Children*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1955. Pp. viii+576. \$4.00.
- NEUGARTEN, BERNICE L. *Becoming Men and Women*. Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1955. Pp. 48. \$0.50.
- PERRY, L. DAY, and SLEPICKA, FRANK. *Bird*

Houses. Peoria 3, Illinois: Chas. A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1955. Pp. 96. \$1.75.

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The Whitman Reader. Edited, with an Introduction, by MAXWELL GEISMAR. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 1955. Pp. xxxvi+508. \$0.50.

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CECCARINI, FRANCES, and DUTTON, WILBUR H. "Making Instructional Aids and Independent Seat Work in Arithmetic." West Los Angeles 25, California: Wilbur H. Dutton (Box 25342), 1955. Pp. vi+74 (processed). \$1.75.

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A *Father Looks at Progressive Education*. Washington 6: National School Public Relations Association, 1954. \$0.25.

"French in the Elementary Classes." New York 21: Services du Conseiller Culturel, French Embassy, [n.d.]. Pp. 4 (processed).

Home Study Blue Book. Edited by HOMER KEMPFER. Washington 5: National Home Study Council (1420 New York Avenue, N.W.), 1955 (eighteenth edition). Pp. 32.

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- UNESCO (United States Sales Agent: Columbia University Press, New York 27): Educational Missions, VI, 1954—*Rebuilding Education in the Republic of Korea.* Report of the UNESCO-UNKRA Educational Planning Mission to Korea. Pp. 222. \$1.75.
- Studies on Compulsory Education, XIII, 1954—*Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific.* Report of the Bombay Conference, December, 1952. Pp. 158. \$1.00.
- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION:
- Bulletin 1954, No. 10—*Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight* by GERTRUDE M. LEWIS. Pp. viii+100. \$0.35.
- Circular No. 417 Revised, 1955—"Fall 1954 Statistics on Enrollment, Teachers, and Schoolhousing in Full-Time Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools" by SAMUEL SCHLOSS and CAROL JOY HOBSON. Pp. 4 (processed).

